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The Outlook

MARCH 12, 1910

LYMAN ABBOTT, Editor-in-Chief. HAMILTON W. MABIE, Associate Editor
THEODORE ROOSEVELT
Contributing Editor

MR. PINCHOT'S TESTIMONY

What has been in common designation the Pinchot-Ballinger controversy has now become the Pinchot-Ballinger controversy in fact. On February 26 Mr. Gifford Pinchot, former Forester and Chief of the Division of Forestry in the Agricultural Department, began his testimony before the Congressional Committee which is investigating the Interior Department and the Forestry Service. Before beginning his testimony Mr. Pinchot made a statement as to what he intended to show. First, he said, he should show that Secretary Ballinger had entered upon his office with the determination to reverse the policy of the last Administration as to protecting against monopolistic control the water power sites owned by the people, and that he gave to the President a false explanation of his conduct; second, he said, he should show that, as regards the Cunningham coal cases, Mr. Ballinger had been unfaithful as a guardian of public property and that he had, in reply to the warning which Mr. Pinchot had given to the President, "laid before the President a statement concerning the Cunningham coal cases, which statement is shown by undisputed documentary evidence to be absolutely false in three essential particulars," and that thus Mr. Ballinger willfully deceived the President; third, he said, as far as the attitude of the Government in law and administration toward Conservation is concerned, the betrayal of natural resources into monopolistic control is easy and monopoly often inevitable. In response to this statement of Mr. Pinchot's, Mr. Ballinger issued a statement in the public press declaring that he would not reply through the press to Mr. Pinchot's "mendacious aspersions," that Mr. Pinchot had "attempted without success to deceive the President," and though he might temporarily deceive the public he could not deceive the Committee, and characterized Mr. Pinchot's utterance as "malignant." In support of the preliminary statement, Mr. Pinchot gave testimony, in reply to direct and to cross-examination, for the greater part of three days. His counsel, Mr. George W. Pepper, of Philadelphia, conducted the examination so that the narrative with regard to each subject was brought out chronologically. Mr. Pinchot's testimony may roughly be apportioned under four general subjects: the withdrawal of water power sites, the withdrawal of other sites, the co-operative agreement between the Indian Office and the Forestry Service, and the Cunningham coal claims. In addition to this he found it necessary to testify as to the point at issue between himself and his former chief, Mr. Wilson, Secretary of Agriculture, regarding the act which led to Mr. Pinchot's dismissal. A careful reading of this testimony in full, as printed in the public minutes of the hearing, gives an impression of cumulative evidence which is all the stronger because it is presented with the frank acknowledgment of mistake in details. It should be remembered that the point of issue before the Committee is not whether Mr. Ballinger or any other public official has violated the law. These hearings do not constitute a criminal trial, and their success will not depend upon the conviction of any man. The point at issue is whether the Interior Department under Mr. Ballinger has been so conducted as to warrant the people, and therefore

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the Administration, in believing that the natural resources of this country are endangered.

MR. BALLINGER AND THE WATER POWER WITHDRAWALS

The first subject taken up extensively by Mr. Pinchot was the withdrawal of water power sites from private entry. Mr. Garfield, as our readers know, in the last month of his administration made extensive withdrawals for the purpose of preventing valuable water power sites from being lost to the public. These withdrawals were made under what Mr. Garfield regarded as the general supervisory authority of the Executive, and they were made in accordance with maps prepared by the Reclamation Service. At the end of March and early in April Mr. Ballinger ordered many of these sites to be restored to private entry, and announced that he did so on the recommendation of the Director of the Reclamation Service, on the ground that such withdrawals were illegal, with the later explanation that no withdrawals could be made without proper investigation. Later a large part of this same territory was re-withdrawn. Mr. Pinchot in his testimony, which he buttressed by the citation of letters and documents, undertook to show that it was only because of the alarm expressed that these re-withdrawals were made. He, moreover, offered to prove by the testimony of later witnesses that the recommendation on which Mr. Ballinger based his restoration was a recommendation forced upon the Reclamation Service by Mr. Ballinger himself. He went at some length into the difference between the withdrawals of water power sites, the withdrawals of ranger stations for the Forest Service, and withdrawals for reclamation purposes, and he undertook to show that Mr. Ballinger's explanation of the re-withdrawals was disingenuous. It is impossible in a brief space to make this part of Mr. Pinchot's testimony clear, but its effect, when read in connection with the letters and documents cited, is to make it difficult to believe that Mr. Ballinger's re-withdrawal of the power sites was not an afterthought. The next question was the so-called co-operative agreement between the Forestry Bureau and the Indian Service, by which the Forestry Bureau supervised forestry on Indian lands. Whether this arrangement was a wise one or not, it was entered into by the common consent of the Department of Agriculture and the Department of the Interior, under which the Forestry Bureau and the Indian Service are respectively placed. After Mr. Ballinger came into office this co-operative agreement was annulled at the instance of the Interior Department. Mr. Pinchot asserts in his testimony, and appears to have substantiated the statement, that Mr. Ballinger represented to the President that this co-operative agreement had been declared illegal by a ruling of the Comptroller. At any rate, the President, after hearing from Mr. Ballinger, wrote a letter explaining that it was on account of that ruling that this agreement was abandoned. The only ruling cited is one which declares that it is unwarranted by law to transfer a clerk from one department to another, and this ruling was given in direct reply to a request concerning the detailing of a clerk from the Forestry Bureau for duty in the Indian Office. That this ruling had nothing to do with the co-operative agreement by which the Forestry Bureau was, so to speak, hired to care for forests on Indian lands, is apparently made clear by the fact that the payment for this work was audited after the ruling was made. If, as appears from the documents, Mr. Ballinger gave as explanation for dissolving the agreement this ruling of the Comptroller, he was in error. If he had other reasons for dissolving this agreement, he has not yet made them public.

THE CUNNINGHAM CASES

It is not necessary to tell in detail again the story of Mr. Ballinger's relation to the Cunningham cases. Reference, however, must be made here to that story because, as Mr. Pinchot testified with regard to it, he referred to a letter written to the Editor-in-Chief of The Outlook. Last year, when the matter first came up, The Outlook cited what it believed to be the facts in reference to Mr Ballinger's action. It stated that an adverse report had been made by Mr.

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Jones, an inspector in the Land Office, while Mr. Ballinger was Land Commissioner, that Mr. Ballinger, as Commissioner, had ordered these claims to be clear-listed, that this order had been held up as the result of a report from Mr. Glavis, and that Mr. Ballinger had later urged before a House Committee legislation which would have benefited those claimants. In view of these facts, The Outlook declared that it was in bad taste for Mr. Ballinger, after leaving the office of Commissioner, to accept a fee from the claimants whose claims had been held up. Later, the former partner of Mr. Ballinger, Judge Ronald, wrote a letter to the Editor-in-Chief of The Outlook, in which he said: "I, without having seen the record, have no hesitancy in asserting that the report of Special Agent Jones was not with reference to the Cunningham claims; that no order of Judge Ballinger's, while Commissioner, clear-listing the Cunningham claims, was held up as a result of a protest from Mr. Glavis; and that Judge Ballinger at no time urged before the House Committee on Public Lands legislation in the interests of any claimants which he had any reason to suspect as being fraudulent." Judge Ronald, as is indicated by a slip attached to the letter, based this statement upon marginal notes of the Outlook article which had been made in Mr. Ballinger's handwriting. When Mr. Pinchot protested to the President regarding Secretary Ballinger's attitude towards Conservation, the President submitted this protest to Mr. Ballinger, and in reply received from Mr. Ballinger this letter of Judge Ronald's, which in turn the President forwarded to Mr. Pinchot. It should be added that there was no denial that Mr. Ballinger had before this time submitted to the President a true statement of the facts. It has been shown by documentary evidence that Judge Ronald was mistaken in his broad denials. This is the basis for Mr. Pinchot's assertion in his preliminary announcement that Mr. Ballinger had laid before the President a statement false in three essential particulars concerning his relation to the Cunningham coal claims. Inasmuch as The Outlook accepted Mr. Ballinger's denial that he knew the Cunningham coal claims were under the suspicion of fraudulency, this portion of Mr. Pinchot's testimony will be particularly interesting to Outlook readers.

MR. PINCHOT AND SECRETARY WILSON

Finally, on his direct examination, Mr. Pinchot, through his counsel, submitted in evidence the letter which he had written to Senator Dolliver in defense of his subordinates, Messrs. Price and Shaw. It was at least partly because the President regarded the sending of this letter as a violation of his order against any subordinate communicating with Congress without the expressed permission of the head of the department in which he served that he dismissed Mr. Pinchot. The Committee desired Mr. Pinchot to state whether he understood that he had the permission of Secretary Wilson. It was with the greatest reluctance that Mr. Pinchot replied. He said that he had no desire for a personal vindication, and that he would find it a painful thing to go into a controversy with Secretary Wilson; but after the question was repeated by vote of the whole Committee, Mr. Pinchot replied that he had left the Secretary's office after a conference with him "with the firm conviction that I had secured his permission to write the letter to Dolliver." He furthermore said that he believed that if he had been accorded a hearing by the President he could have set before the President the facts in such a way as to have avoided the necessity under which the President believed himself to be of removing him from the public service. When Secretary Wilson was called to the stand, he declared that Mr. Pinchot had never got his consent to send that letter to the Senator. He acknowledged that he had no objection to Mr. Pinchot's sending a letter on departmental matters. On his cross-examination Secretary Wilson said that he had advised against making public any letter for the purpose of offsetting any communication of the President's. The difference between Mr. Pinchot and Secretary Wilson is not one which raises a question of veracity. It is evidently a difference of understanding. Nothing that Secretary Wilson said indicated that it was not possible for Mr. Pinchot to

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believe that he had the Secretary's permission. In the course of his testimony, elicited by his own counsel, Mr. Pinchot acknowledged that he made some mistakes in statement. They were in reference to the length of time he had known Mr. Glavis, and to the entries that he understood had been made after the water power sites had been restored; but they were in no respects essential to his contention. It is to be remembered that Mr. Ballinger has yet to be heard. It is not the part either of the newspaper press or of the public to judge the case until the testimony is all in. In the meantime, however, readers of newspaper despatches should accept with great care the reports of these hearings. They do not give the impression which is obtained by careful reading of the testimony in full.

SENATOR ROOT AND THE INCOME TAX AMENDMENT

In transmitting to the Legislature of New York the proposed amendment to the Federal Constitution authorizing Congress to lay income taxes without apportionment among the several States according to population, Governor Hughes, our readers will remember, expressed the view that the amendment would permit Congress to tax incomes from State and municipal bonds, and thus, in his opinion, would impair the rights of the States by putting their borrowing capacity at the mercy of the Federal Government. At the time The Outlook questioned, first, whether, even if this power were granted, it would in fact be exercised by Congress, since the Representatives and Senators in Congress are delegates from the States themselves; and, second, whether that power would be actually granted by the terms of the amendment. Now Senator Root, in a letter to State Senator Davenport, of New York, has ably put the view that that power would not be so granted. The amendment as submitted by Congress is as follows:

> Article 16. The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States and without regard to any census or enumeration.

Mr. Root paraphrases this. He writes: "The effect of the amendment will be, in my view, the same as if it said, 'The United States may lay a tax on incomes without apportioning the tax, and this shall be applicable, whatever the source of the income subjected to the tax,' leaving the question, 'What incomes are subject to National taxation?' to be determined by the same principles and rules which are now applicable to the determination of that question." Mr. Root then goes on to point out that, under the Constitution as interpreted by the Supreme Court, the Federal Government has no power by taxation to impair or embarrass the powers of the several States, and therefore concludes that the kinds of income which the Federal Government may tax will not be in any way determined by the proposed amendment, in spite of the words "from whatever source derived." As Mr. Root says:

> The Congress already has power to impose taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, subject to the rule of construction which excludes State securities from the operation of the power; but the taxes so imposed must be apportioned among the States. Under the proposed amendment there will be the same and no greater power to tax incomes from whatever source derived, subject to the same rule of construction, but relieved from the requirement that the tax shall be apportioned.

Those who take issue with Mr. Root hold that at present the Constitution prevents Congress not only from taxing incomes without apportionment, but also from taxing incomes derived from State and municipal bonds, and that the proposed amendment not only relieves Congress from the apportionment restriction but also gives Congress power to tax incomes which it could not tax otherwise.

THE MERITS OF THE INCOME TAX

Senator Davenport regards this difference of opinion between Governor Hughes and Senator Root as one which does not concern a vital matter; for even if Congress should tax State and municipal bonds, together with other securities, it would not, he holds, impair their value. He points out that a tax lessens the value of a bond only because it drives capital to seek untaxed securities. "But," he inquires, "if a general income tax, which is contemplated by the proposed amend-

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ment, is levied upon all fields of investment, to what other more favorable field of investment can capital flow? There would, therefore, be no change in the demand for State and municipal bonds, no fall in the price, and no injury to State and municipal credit." Indeed, he goes further and quotes Professor Seligman, of Columbia University, who says:

There is no good reason why the Federal Government should discriminate in favor of the States. The Constitutional inhibition only means that the Federal Government should not discriminate against the States by affecting their power to borrow. So long as there is no special taxation of State bonds, this power to borrow will not be injuriously affected. Special exemption would confer upon the States a gift and an advantage over other investments. If Federal securities were taxed under a National income tax law, as they sometimes have been for fiscal reasons in the United States, and as they are everywhere abroad, this would give State and municipal securities an unfair advantage. The Constitution was never designed to favor the States as against the Nation.

This discussion with regard to a detail of the income tax should not divert public attention from the discussion of the principle of such a tax. It should be remembered that a tax on incomes is not merely a tax on dividends, but also a tax on the rewards of industry. The Outlook therefore takes this occasion to say what it has said before—that it is property, and not industry, which is the just subject for taxation; and that the income tax, being a tax upon the returns from industry as well as the returns from property, is not as just and therefore not as desirable as taxes on real estate, on inheritances, and on dividends.

HETCH-HETCHY AGAIN

Last week Secretary Ballinger, of the Department of the Interior, called upon the city of San Francisco to show reason why it should flood the Hetch-Hetchy Cañon in order to provide for a municipal water reservoir. The Secretary of the Interior has charge of National Parks; the Hetch-Hetchy Valley is part of a National Park; San Francisco wishes a larger water supply; Hetch-Hetchy was selected, and an appeal made to Secretary Hitchcock, who declined to entertain it. Secretary Garfield, on the other hand, anxious to insure the best possible supply of water to a needy population—for the supply would benefit not only San Francisco, but the adjacent cities—granted the request in May, 1908, stipulating, however, that no reservoir should be made in the Hetch-Hetchy Cañon until the adjacent Lake Eleanor system had been fully developed. Mr. Garfield's order is as follows:

The city and county of San Francisco will develop the Lake Eleanor site to its full capacity before beginning the development of the Hetch-Hetchy site; and the development of the latter will be begun only when the needs of the city and county of San Francisco and adjacent cities which may join with it in obtaining a common water supply may require such further development.

If this grant were confirmed, the entire watershed might ultimately pass into the control of San Francisco, which would thus acquire the northern half of the Yosemite National Reservation. That reservation belongs to the people of the United States, and in noble scenery the Hetch-Hetchy Valley is second only to the Yosemite. San Francisco would flood the cañon's wonderful floral floor, four miles long and from a quarter to three-quarters of a mile wide. Moreover, it would block up the main trail to the cañon of the Tuolumne River, with its picturesque cascades. Finally, it would also destroy another beautiful camping-ground, Tuolumne Meadows, situated above the cañon. The Outlook took issue with Secretary Garfield's contention that, as San Francisco seriously needs water, to let it have a supply from the Hetch-Hetchy is "not incompatible with public interest." If San Francisco could not get an adequate water supply from any other source, Mr. Garfield's decision might have been justified. But The Outlook repeats what it then said:

We have seen no satisfactory evidence that the citizens of San Francisco cannot get all the water they need from at least a dozen other sources. . . . It may be that they can get it more *cheaply* from the Hetch-Hetchy Valley; but we submit that, while the Yosemite National Park might very properly be sacrificed to save the lives and health of the citizens of San Francisco, it ought not to be sacrificed to save their dollars.

. . . . . .

As Mr. Garfield truly says, "the Spring Valley Water Company has her [San Francisco] by the throat," but we hardly think that this can be called a case of unprovoked assault. The fact of the matter is that San

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Francisco herself aided in the creation of the Spring Valley Water Company, and invited and fostered the intimate relationship which she now complains is being used for purposes of robbing and throttling her. Is it not her place to end the relationship? . . . Let San Francisco herself sweep out this corruption, before she appeals to the Federal Government to wash it out with the water of the Hetch-Hetchy Valley. So much for the chivalrous aspect of the question, which, after all, does not seem to The Outlook to be a very serious aspect.

Last autumn Secretary Ballinger visited the region, making a personal investigation. He also ordered an extended investigation by Dr. George Otis Smith, Director of the Geological Survey, and Engineers Hill and Hopson, of the Reclamation Service. They now report that the Lake Eleanor project is amply sufficient to meet San Francisco's present and prospective needs, and that the necessity does not exist to make the Hetch-Hetchy available to San Francisco for her water supply. In view of these conclusions, Secretary Ballinger calls upon the Mayor and Supervisors of the city and county of San Francisco to show why the Hetch-Hetchy should not be eliminated from Secretary Garfield's permit.

WHAT IS THE MATTER WITH THE POST-OFFICE

President Taft in his Message to Congress and the Postmaster-General in his annual report directed attention strongly to one aspect of the Post-Office Department. That aspect, we believe, cannot be considered intelligently and fairly unless the entire business of the Post-Office is given careful and thorough consideration at the same time. The President declared and the Postmaster-General reiterated that it costs the Government nine cents a pound to transport second-class mail matter (that is, newspaper and periodical mail), on which the publishers pay a postal rate of one cent a pound. The yearly loss to the Government on the transportation of this class of matter, they declared, amounts to about sixty-three million dollars. They suggested an increase in the postal rate upon periodicals other than newspapers. The Periodical Publishers' Association of America, composed of the publishers of practically all the leading magazines in the country, presented to the Postal Committee of the House of Representatives figures and arguments to show that the estimate of the Postmaster-General of the cost of transporting second-class mail matter was much too high. The head of the Post-Office has now made public a statement in rebuttal of that of the Publishers' Association. In it he once more asserts that "the Government is losing over eight cents a pound on second-class matter sent through the mails, the annual loss to the National revenues from this cost approximating sixty-four million dollars." We cannot believe that his estimate is correct; but if we accept his statement, we declare that his figures show that there is something radically wrong in the Post-Office Department. The Post-Office is a business organization, and if the periodical mail of the country is being carried at a cost of nine cents a pound, that one fact alone proves that this organization is not being run on sound business principles and with business methods of ordinary efficiency. This lack of economy and effective business administration is due, not to individuals, but in part to the limits set by Congress from time to time, chiefly through the influence of special interests, to the service which the Post-Office may render, and in part to the cumbrous and antiquated system of organization within the department. The first condition should be met by the institution of a general parcels post, like that in use in practically every other civilized country, and particularly of a special parcels post system on rural free delivery routes. The reform of the second condition is aimed at by a bill now before Congress, introduced in the Senate by Senator Carter, one of the ablest members of the Senate Postal Committee, and in the House by Representative Weeks, the Chairman of the Postal Committee. The bill provides for a thorough reorganization of the Post-Office Department, and especially for the appointment of a Director of Posts who shall be the permanent head of the Post-Office Department, having general superintendence and management of the postal service under the supervising control of the Postmaster-General. The bill is substantially the same as a bill introduced three years ago, as the result of the report of a Congressional commission

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which made thorough investigation of the methods of the Post-Office Department. Senator Carter asserts that the business methods of the Post-Office have not been changed since 1835; and the report of the expert accountants to the commission shows that the methods in use in the Post-Office are antiquated and ineffective. The business of carrying the mails is the one business in which the National Government is engaged. In its administration the Government ought to be able to avail itself of the most modern business methods and the best possible business skill. This is impossible under present conditions; the enactment of the Carter-Weeks bill would make it possible. The passage of the bill should be urged upon the members of Congress by every public-spirited citizen.

YOUNGER ADMIRALS

Last week President Taft sent a special Message to Congress urging favorable action on Secretary Meyer's plan to improve the navy personnel. It was time for such a Message. American naval officers reach too late in life the grades in which they are called upon to exercise fleet command. Surprising as it may seem, few Rear-Admirals are created who stay in that grade more than a year, and probably more than half of them do not fly an admiral's flag for a single cruise. Hence the President justly feels that—

> The future of our navy will be seriously compromised unless the ages of our senior officers are materially reduced and opportunity is given thereby for experience and training for battle-ship and fleet commands. . . . The greater number of our older commanding officers have had inadequate experience in command. Experience in command of a large vessel in the battle fleet is essential to the commander of a division or squadron of the fleet, and preliminary training in flag officers' duties is necessary before succeeding to the chief command of a fleet.

As the figures submitted by the President show, the average age of the rear-admirals in the navies of the leading maritime nations on January 1, 1910, was: Japanese, 50; German, 51; English, 53; Austrian, 55; Italian, 56; French, 59; American, 60½. The Administration's proposed bill would bring promotion at the following ages: for an ensign, 22 years; for a junior grade lieutenant, 25 years; for a full lieutenant, 28 years; for a lieutenant-commander, 36 years; for a commander, 42 years; for a captain, 47 years; and for a rear-admiral, 55 years. This arrangement appropriately follows and supplements the Naval Personnel Bill passed some years ago at President Roosevelt's instance. As President Taft says, the navy personnel should match the superb new vessels of our navy, "if the navy is to be at the efficiency which is vitally necessary for its chief purpose." Thus attention is called to those vessels already in commission and authorized, together with those recommended by Secretary Meyer for the present Naval Appropriation Bill. Mr. Meyer's programme is as follows: two battle-ships, one repair-ship, two colliers, and four submarines. The Naval Affairs Committee of the House of Representatives has now adopted this programme in its entirety. No change of policy is involved in the authorization of two new battle-ships; they are necessary to fill out the squadron of eight originally planned, the first six members being the North Dakota, Delaware, Florida, Utah, Arkansas, and Wyoming. Moreover, the total appropriations carried in the pending Naval Bill are over five million dollars less than the total carried in last year's bill. The Administration's policy of retrenchment in Federal expenditure is thus being applied in the Navy Department as elsewhere. In Secretary Meyer's report last December he said: "Developments now seem to point to the adoption of a larger gun for the latest battle-ships." This means the new fourteen-inch gun. It is believed to have an effective fighting range of more than six miles. If its final tests are satisfactory, Mr. Meyer will probably urge that the main battery of the battle-ships, to be ordered a year hence, be of fourteen-inch guns. Now the displacement of a battle-ship to carry twelve fourteen inch guns might be from thirty thousand to thirty-two thousand tons. The expense of building and maintaining such battle-ships would be enormous. Is it necessary? Time was when our geographical isolation was worth more to us in National defense than the largest navy in the world. Now, however, we are no longer isolated. Not only have we oversea possessions to be defended,

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we have a rapidly increasing oversea commerce to be protected. We need an entirely adequate navy, and that means a very strong navy. We should not, however, determine our naval policy by our ability to compete with other nations in the number and size of our battle-ships. We should compete with them, as President Taft's Message indicates, in making our navy second to none by the efficiency of its personnel.

THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT

The course of Mr. Asquith and his fellow-Ministers in the new British Parliament is becoming a little smoother for the moment, though plenty of rocks loom menacingly on the not far distant horizon. The Government programme announced by the Premier last week involves exclusive attention to immediate financial needs until the Easter recess, which begins on March 24. When Parliament reassembles, resolutions for the curtailment of the power of the House of Lords will be introduced, and the re-enactment of the Lloyd-George Budget will be undertaken when those resolutions have passed the Commons. The resolutions will aim, in accordance with Mr. Asquith's often reiterated intention, not only to eliminate definitely any possibility of future interference by the Lords with financial legislation, but to destroy the veto power of the Lords over any general legislation on which the Commons are unchangeably determined. It will be made clear, said Mr. Asquith, that the changes proposed in the resolutions will be without prejudice, and that the Government contemplates in the subsequent year a substitution in the second chamber of a democratic for an hereditary basis. The resolutions will be submitted to the House of Lords when passed by the Commons. "If the House of Lords agrees to them," continued the Premier, "well and good, but whether it does or does not, the Government will regard the placing with all possible promptitude upon the statute books of a provision which will set free this House from the veto of the House of Lords, not only as the first condition of the legislative dignity and utility of the House of Commons, but as our own primary and paramount duty. In the prosecution of that task we shall adopt all such measures within the limits of the Constitution which seem to us proper and adequate, and upon its successful accomplishment are at stake not only our fortunes but our existence as a Government." The Unionists interposed no obstacle to the proposal of the Government to devote the time until Easter to pressing financial legislation, probably because they are by no means anxious for the defeat of the Government just now and for another expensive general election so soon. The decision of the Premier to postpone the Budget until the resolutions dealing with the Lords shall have been passed is apparently a concession to the Nationalists. The Irish party will support the Government so long as it subordinates everything to the project of depriving the Lords of their veto power. For they realize that the accomplishment of that end would remove the only absolutely insuperable barrier to Home Rule. Whether Mr. Asquith can satisfy them without committing himself to rash and ill-considered methods remains to be seen. The weeks after Easter will be crucial ones for the Government, whose task is monumental and whose support is increasingly difficult to handle.

THE LAND OF THE LAMAS

Last week the Dalai Lama, fleeing from Tibet over the Himalayan passes, reached Darjiling, the summer capital of India. Tibet is an outlying province of the Chinese Empire, and, like Chinese Turkestan, Mongolia, and Manchuria, has not been considered as belonging to China proper. Tibet is located at such an altitude that it has been called "the roof of the world." It is a rough, bleak, inhospitable land. Its inaccessibility has always hampered its industrial and commercial development. Under any circumstances its agricultural development, owing to the absence of fertile valleys, could never amount to much. But natural inaccessibility has been emphasized by the isolation enforced on Tibetans by their ruler, the Dalai or Grand Lama. Although China's authority in Tibet is represented by two officers called Ambans, who have control respectively of foreign and military affairs, the country's civil and religious administration has been left to the Dalai Lama, the head

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of a form of Buddhism professed by the Tibetans and also by certain tribes over the Tibetan border in India, Russia, and China. The present Dalai Lama is said to be thirty-four years old. His personality is purposely shrouded in mystery. Not even his family name is known. For, according to the fanatical Tibetans, the Dalai Lama is eternal. His perpetuation is the great miracle which distinguishes Lamaism from other forms of Buddhism. When the earthly covering of a Dalai Lama has worn out, his soul is reincarnated in a young child. The Dalai Lama has as his chief minister the Tashi Lama. He it was with whom six years ago the British came in contact, when Sir Francis Younghusband led a column into Tibet and fought his way to Lhasa, the Tibetan capital, the "Forbidden City," in which no foreigner had set foot. Its secrets were then laid bare, and, what is more, the Government of India was able to come to an understanding with the Tibetan Government regarding frontier disturbances. On the approach of the British the Dalai Lama, who now escapes to India to protest against a Chinese invasion, escaped to China to protest against an Indian invasion. Long wandering over northern China with a retinue of hundreds of men, horses, and camels, he finally reached Peking. Here he confirmed the unfavorable impression with which he had been hitherto regarded; perhaps in irony, the Chinese Government conferred on him the title of "Sincere and Loyal Spreader of Civilization." Last year he arrived again at Lhasa, and began again his alleged misrule. The Peking Government, pursuing its policy of "China for the Chinese," determined to make its control more effective over the land of the Lamas. It reinforced its garrisons in Tibet. Some of the soldiers committed excesses. The Dalai Lama protested. The Amban replied that, as Tibet was a Chinese province, he would deal as he pleased with Tibetan rebels. Other questions of authority arose, and finally the Amban ordered into Lhasa twenty-five hundred soldiers. At this the Dalai Lama, with sixty retainers, fled through a gate at the rear of the palace inclosure. He traveled day and night, pursued by the Chinese almost to the border of India. On arriving at Darjiling there was a demonstration of devotion by the Buddhists of various races. Many had gone a long distance to meet him and escort him. Monks and priests waved censers and carried banners. A British official and military escort also went to meet him with the formalities demanded by his rank and sanctity in the eyes of the natives. He was conducted to the Druid Hotel, the whole of which had been reserved for his use. He, only, occupies the upper floor, as he must needs live and sleep at a higher level than his suite. The walls were draped with yellow silk, and an altar on which incense is burned was erected in the Lama's bedchamber. Meanwhile the Chinese Government has issued an edict deposing the Lama because he has evaded tribute and has been guilty of intrigue. It adds that China will elect his successor. But suppose the reincarnation is proclaimed while the present Lama's body still wanders on earth? Will it not precipitate a schism in Lamaism? Perhaps that might not be altogether displeasing to the Chinese Government in its expectation to extend actual sovereignty over Tibet and open the country to commercial intercourse like the rest of the empire of which it forms a part. The China of to-day means a new and militant national spirit. Not only Tibet but the other outlying provinces are already feeling its influence.

A GREAT ENDOWMENT

The organization of the Rockefeller Foundation, with the announcement that it is to administer a large part of Mr. John D. Rockefeller's immense fortune, is one of the most striking events in the history of education, and will add an enormous endowment for educational and philanthropic uses to those already established. The Peabody Fund, which was a pioneer in this direction, has been immensely fruitful. The Carnegie Institution, the Carnegie Fund, the Sage Fund, and Mr. Rockefeller's endowment of the General Education Board—the most important of them all in point of resources—have been success points of departure for increasing the erosity of provision for public welfare. Mr. Rockefeller has already given about one hundred and fifty millions to

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education, charities, and medical research. The Rockefeller Foundation is to distribute a great fortune "for the acquisition and dissemination of knowledge, the prevention and relief of suffering, and the promotion of any and all the elements of human progress." These are the terms of the charter for the Foundation now before Congress. They could not be more inclusive, nor give freer scope to the judgment of the administrators of the Foundation, nor open a wider door to the conditions which the future may bring. It is understood that this Foundation will be a kind of clearing-house for Mr. Rockefeller's beneficences of all kinds. For many years his distributions of money have been made only after thorough and very businesslike investigations; the management of the new Foundation will undoubtedly be as exact and businesslike as its opportunities will be great. It will be an enormous fund, which can be directed at any time in any direction, not only to build up a college, to make a purely scientific investigation possible, to endow an individual worker of genius, but to furnish immediate aid in times of great disaster. Nor is it confined by racial limits. It will be at the service of the whole world. It is understood that Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., who has lately withdrawn from several directorates, will hereafter devote himself to the distribution of his father's fortune. He is a young man of education, fine character, and great working power. The bill provides for a board of twenty-five incorporators, who will be men of experience in the various fields of work in which it is proposed to use the Foundation. This great gift, the largest, probably, in history, will rise above all national or racial lines, and take the whole world for its field. Its importance for the moment and its prophetic significance can hardly be overstated. The opinion which has been held concerning some of the methods pursued in the making of this great fortune will not be modified by this magnificent gift; for principles cannot be bent to fit new moods, new occasions, or new developments of character; but the intense feeling of disapprobation which has been felt with regard to some of the methods of the great corporation which Mr. Rockefeller's genius built up ought not to blind people to the greatness of vision and service involved in such a gift.

A NEW SOCIETY FOR THE WORLD'S PEACE

With the indorsement of President Taft, Secretary Knox, Senators Root and Burton, there was recently organized, at the residence of Mr. Theodore Marburg in Baltimore, the American Society for the Judicial Settlement of International Disputes. It will devote itself principally to issuing articles by leading men of all countries on subjects indicated by the title of the organization. It will also organize meetings in various parts of this country, with a view to educating the people as to the desirability of promoting the peace of the world by settling points of international controversy in the same general way in which differences between individuals are now settled. If emphasis is to be laid upon anything, it is on certain phrases in the letters read at the meeting. The first was from President Taft:

> There is no other single way in which the cause of peace and disarmament can be so effectively promoted as by the firm establishment of a permanent international court of justice.

Senator Root wrote:

> I assume that you are going to urge that disputes between nations shall be settled by judges acting under the judicial sense of honorable obligation, with a judicial idea of impartiality, rather than by diplomats acting under the diplomatic ideas of honorable obligation, and feeling bound to negotiate a settlement rather than to pass without fear or favor upon questions of fact and law. It seems to me that such a change in the fundamental idea of what an arbitration should be is essential to any very great further extension of the idea of arbitration.

These words echo those spoken by Mr. Root, then Secretary of State, in 1907 at the Peace Congress in New York City. Later in the year he amplified them in his instructions given to the American delegates to the second Hague Conference. His outline was in turn elaborated by one of the delegates, Dr. James Brown Scott, Solicitor for the State Department, by which Mr. Root's idea of allowing litigants recourse to a judicial instead of a semi-diplomatic tribunal would be realized by a court, not a panel, as in the present so-called "Permanent Court" at The

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Hague, which is really neither permanent nor a court. It cannot be permanent when a tribunal is selected for every new case. It cannot be a court, properly speaking, when its members have no qualifications of necessity as judges. It is proposed that the new court be composed of fifteen members, having reputation as judges, appointed for a renewable term of twelve years, to be paid annual salaries and to sit in annual sessions. This plan was agreed to by the full Conference, and to go into operation needs only a decision by certain Powers, without waiting for the rest, concerning the appointment of judges. But the decision of certain Powers has not yet been made; hence Mr. Knox, Secretary of State, suggests that the difficulty be met by conferring the jurisdiction of the Court of Arbitral Justice upon the International Prize Court already authorized by the Hague Conference. This method, as Dean Kirchwey pointed out in a recent address, is a lawyer's practical way of making progress, as it uses an already accepted plan. In his preface to an admirable paper on the proposed Court by James L. Tryon, of the American Peace Society, Dean Kirchwey declares that "with the institution of such a tribunal the reign of law will be at hand. 'Force and Right rule the world,' said Rochefoucauld; 'Force, till Right is ready.' The hour prefigured in the maxim of the soldier-philosopher has struck. Right *is* ready."

DR. MACCRACKEN'S RETIREMENT

The announcement of the retirement next September of Chancellor MacCracken, who for nineteen years has been at the head of New York University, will attract attention. When Dr. MacCracken accepted the Vice-Chancellorship twenty-six years ago, the University was a local institution with a number of brilliant graduates, but not widely known. College men throughout the country were chiefly aware of its existence because they had read Theodore Winthrop's story "Cecil Dreeme," certain parts of which were localized, so to speak, in the University Building on Washington Square, described in the book as "Chrysalis College." The accommodations reserved for university work were few and small, and there were many lodgers. With the coming of Dr. MacCracken the life of the little institution became more vigorous. A graduate school was established. Taking its fate in its hands, the University boldly moved its undergraduate departments across the Harlem River and took possession of the fine site on which it now stands. Schools of pedagogy, commerce, finance and accounts, women's law classes, and a down-town collegiate division were brought into existence. A new building was erected on the site of the old college, the upper stories of which were reserved for certain parts of the university work. The law school, medical schools, the veterinary school, and other branches of instruction were opened, or brought into the University organization. Since 1884 the student body has grown from 91 college students to 4,118 university students, and the property of the institution has increased in value from about $550,000 to over $5,000,000. These results show extraordinary energy and business capacity, and the University has achieved in the meantime a wide reputation. It has been fortunate in having in more than one department teachers of high standing as scholars and of marked ability as instructors. It has a beautiful situation, and a group of buildings which are still inadequate, but which are palatial in comparison with the structure in which it started when Dr. MacCracken came to it.

A GENERAL STRIKE IN PHILADELPHIA

Last week on Friday at midnight the threatened general strike in sympathy with the striking employees of the Philadelphia Traction Company became a fact. Sixty thousand men in seventy-five trades, according to the claims of the union leaders, left work as a protest against the refusal of the Traction Company either to yield to the demands of the Carmen's Union or to agree to arbitrate the questions at issue. According to their figures, the protesting workers include 15,000 textile workers, 3,000 carpenters, 2,000 cigarmakers, 1,500 garment workers, 1,800 hatters, 2,000 machinists, 2,200 painters, 1,800 upholstery workers, and 2,500 plasterers. In the other unions the number of members run from 150 to 1,000. Last week sev-

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eral efforts were made by representatives of commercial and property interests to induce the Company to submit to arbitration, but without success. As we go to press it is much feared that Philadelphia will again be the scene of the gravest disorder and violence. Labor leaders called for a great but peaceable demonstration in one of the city squares last Saturday, and the city authorities forbade it. The police force has been increased to 6,000 men, and it is reported unofficially that the State militia is being held ready for instant despatch to the city. The Philadelphia police, as was pointed out in our staff correspondence last week, through their long-continued use by a corrupt machine as political tools, are inefficient and are far from commanding the moral respect of the people of the city. The State Constabulary who checked the violence of the earlier days of the strike have been withdrawn for service in other parts of the State. If a reign of violence is precipitated, the leaders of union labor who have brought about the general strike will have much to answer for. The Outlook has repeatedly expressed its conviction that the sympathetic strike is, except under the most abnormal conditions, an indefensible procedure. When the principle is so extended as to involve nearly fourscore trades, unrelated except in their common relation to trades unionism, its indefensibility is multiplied many fold. On what possible theory of justice and equity should cigarmakers, plumbers, egg candlers, tailors, and musicians disrupt the peaceful relations, oftentimes dignified by contractual agreements, in which they have been working with their employers, because carmen are in acute disagreement with *their* employers? The right of labor to organize and to attempt to secure its rights by striking is, in our opinion, indisputable. But when the right is used against innocent employers and innocent consumers in aid of an entirely different set of workers, the right becomes a flagrant wrong. We do not believe this general strike, on its merits, can or ought to succeed. If it brings violence and disorder in its train, we hope the city authorities, calling to their aid, if need be, every force which the State can provide, will deal with the situation boldly and firmly. The traction strike ought never to have been begun. The differences between the company and their men should have been submitted to arbitration. There ought to be some method available by which the party most at interest, the traveling public, could compel both employers and employees in any public service corporation to settle their differences without resort to strike or lockout methods. This general strike in Philadelphia will not only injure the community but harm the cause of union labor; meanwhile, we hope, it may do incidentally the good of helping to awaken public sentiment to the necessity of providing some more civilized method of settling such disputes than industrial warfare.

RAILWAY REGULATION

No matter how successfully a man may raise produce or manufacture goods, if he cannot transport his products to his customers he may as well go out of business. As truly as the life of the individual depends upon the circulation of blood, the life of the community depends upon the circulation of wealth. It is plain, therefore, that there is nothing on which the community is more dependent than on its channels of transportation. Before the days of steam these channels were, besides navigable streams, the public highways. Under common law and statute law these highways were, as they are now, controlled by the community and used on equal terms by all within the community. With the advent of steam, however, new channels of transportation were created—the railways. Because they afforded rapidity and ease of transportation, the railways superseded the highways in importance; in fact, supplanted them as the real avenues of commerce. Unlike the wagon roads, however, they were in the beginning private enterprises. In other words, though they were substitutes for the public highways, they were not public highways themselves. They were therefore neither controlled by the community nor open to all members of the community on equal terms. They were regarded as private property. Those who owned and managed them resented all attempts on the part of the community to treat them other-

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wise than as forms of private business. During the formative period of railway construction the real highways of the Nation were thus not public but essentially private highways.

Within the last decade, however, the people of the Nation have come to recognize that the chief highways of commerce cannot, consistently with justice and equity, remain private, but that they must, in the two essential respects, become public; that is, they must be subject to public control and be made open to all members of the community on equal terms. Particularly during Mr. Roosevelt's Administration this popular sentiment in behalf of public control and equal treatment was embodied in law. The existing but then comparatively unimportant Inter-State Commerce Commission was made a real instrument of public control, with the chief purpose of securing equal treatment of shippers by the railways. In this lay the significance of the enactment of the Railway Rate Regulation Law in 1906. By this law the Inter-State Commerce Commission was given power, subject to review by the courts, to declare, upon complaint, a rate to be unreasonable, and to take action to prevent railways from discriminating in favor of or against shippers. Important as this law was, it was decidedly limited in its scope. It recorded only a stage in the movement from the conception of the railway as a private business to that of the railway as a public highway. The Nation is yet in a transition period as regards public control of its channels of transportation.

The Inter-State Commerce Bill now before Congress marks another stage in the transition. Drawn to represent the views of the Administration, introduced into the Senate by Mr. Elkins and into the House by Mr. Townsend, modified in committee in accordance with amendments submitted by the Attorney-General, it is now in shape to be publicly considered.

In brief, its main provisions are as follows:

1. It establishes a Court of Commerce. Five additional Circuit Court judges are to be appointed by the President. Then, out of the total number of Circuit Court judges, five are to be designated by the Chief Justice of the United States to places on this new court. These judges cannot serve on this court longer than five years in succession without an interval of at least one year. It has original jurisdiction over cases for the enforcement or annulment of the orders of the Inter-State Commerce Commission, and other inter-State commerce cases; but its decisions are subject to appeal to the Supreme Court. Appeals from this court have right of way over all but criminal cases. In proceedings to annul any order of the Commission, the court can suspend the order for sixty days pending the final hearing.

2. It establishes procedure in the Court of Commerce. By the bill suits in this court which heretofore would have been brought against the Commission are now to be brought against the United States. The interests of the Government in cases before this court and on appeal from the court are to be in charge of the Attorney-General, who may employ attorneys and counselors-at-law. "The Inter-State Commerce Commission and its attorneys shall take no part in the conduct of such litigation."

3. It allows agreements between railways. Heretofore the law has prevented agreements as to rates and classifications, as well as the pooling of freights, but has required rates to be equal and uniform. This contradiction will be, by this bill, obliterated. Now, if agreements as to rates and classification of freights are duly filed with the Commission, they will not be illegal, provided they are not suspended by the Commission. Pooling, however, remains illegal.

4. It holds railways distinctly responsible for giving information regarding rates. Heretofore the shipper has been held responsible for enjoying a discriminatory rate even when he has been misinformed by the railway. Now the railway is required under penalty to inform shippers correctly.

5. It enlarges the powers of the Commission regarding investigations, decisions, and suspensions of rates, and enables the shipper to choose routes. Heretofore the Commission has not been able to act except on complaint, and has not been empowered to change a rate till it has

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gone into effect. Now (though the burden of proving a rate unjust still rests upon the Commission) the Commission, on its own initiative, can investigate classifications and rates, suspend them for sixty days before they go into effect, and prescribe what classifications and what maximum rate will be just and reasonable. Heretofore, also, the shipper has had to allow his goods to go by any route the carrier or carriers prefer; now the shipper can select the through route himself, and thus prevent a railway from bolstering up, at the expense of the shippers, an expensive road by diverting traffic over it.

6. It provides heavy penalties for violations, and modifies the existing law as to reports from the railways.

7. It maintains the competitive principle in railways. It does this by prohibiting a railway from acquiring any interest in a competing line. At the same time it instructs the Court of Commerce to take into consideration the effect of any proposed acquisition upon the enforcement of all the laws and "the relative importance of any benefit to the public interest and of any effect upon competition from such acquisition."

8. It gives to the Commission large control over the finances of railways. It prohibits railways from disposing of securities except for money and at par value, or, in case of bonds, if below par, at a reasonable market price or selling price as determined by the Commission. If a railway exchanges a security for property other than money, it must accept the valuation of such property as ascertained by the Commission. It also allows, in the reorganization of railways, the exchange of securities under the regulation of the Commission. It provides, however, that nothing in these sections on finance "shall in any way affect or impair the validity of any such stock, certificates of stock, bonds or other evidences of indebtedness in the hands of innocent holders for value."

9. It guards former proceedings of the Commission, and provides for decisions by single Commissioners subject to review by the whole Commission.

This bill should not be judged as if it were an attempt to reach final public control over the highways of the Nation. It should be judged as another stage in the transition from the period of private control to the period of public control. As such it marks great progress. No reader, we believe, can fail to see, even in this brief outline, that, if this bill is passed, the people of the United States will have far more to say regarding the channels of transportation than they now have.

Before the bill is passed, however, certain questions, we believe, should be further considered. We shall here state them under the nine heads into which we have divided the bill.

1. Will the advantage of having a court composed of judges who, by giving exclusive attention to inter-State commerce questions, become expert in that subject, be overbalanced by the disadvantage of concentrating upon one court all the pressure of railway interests? Will the plan of having a judge serve for only five years consecutively secure that advantage? Will the method by which judges are designated, and the limitation imposed upon their term of service, avoid that disadvantage? These are questions which ought to be discussed. So far as we can see, the bill follows a safe middle course, and promises to avoid the danger without unduly sacrificing the advantage involved in a court of specialists. Furthermore, the question ought to be raised whether a period of sixty days is not too long for the suspension of an order of the Commission. Will not this be a further instance of the law's delay?

2. Why should the attorneys of the Inter-State Commerce Commission, who by their study of cases before the Commission have gathered valuable information, be prohibited from appearing in such cases on appeal before the Court of Commerce? It has been suggested that they ought not to appear because the Commission has in its decisions acted as a court, and therefore its representatives should not appear before another court as advocates. This, we believe, is to sacrifice the public interests for a theory. As a matter of fact, the Inter-State Commerce Commission is not a court; it is an administrative representative of the public, and as such it ought to have the opportunity of laying its information before the court. Opportunity also ought to be given to shippers to be heard.

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3. By the terms of the bill, the burden of disapproving agreements between railways rests upon the Commission. Ought not this to be reversed? Instead of providing that unless the Commission suspends an agreement that agreement goes into effect, should not the bill provide that the agreement should not go into effect unless the Commission, either by an explicit declaration or silence during a designated period, gives consent?

4. The wisdom of this provision cannot well be questioned.

5. Again, should not the Commission be relieved of the burden of disapproval, and should it not have at least one hundred and twenty days in which to ascertain whether a proposed rate or classification is unjust?

6. This provision does not call for special comment.

7. Is it worth while to attempt to retain the competitive principle in railways? And, if so, do these provisions safeguard that principle?

8. In the sections of the bill providing control over the finances of the railways, does the provision insuring the validity of securities in the hands of innocent holders mean simply that the corporation issuing such securities shall not be relieved of its obligation? Or does it mean that bonds otherwise invalid because issued contrary to this Act shall, if they happen to have found their way into the market, be rendered valid? If the second question is to be answered in the affirmative, all of these financial sections are practically worthless, and the public interest is sacrificed in order to prevent hardship upon individuals. This certainly should be made clear before the bill is passed.

9. This provision is wise.

Though these questions have to do with the construction of a legal and administrative machine rather than with principles, they are not unimportant, for this bill is not so much the embodiment of a principle as the creation of machinery by which that principle may be put into more practical effect. It should be remembered, however, that these questions do not affect the intent of the bill as a whole; they suggest possible further amendment, but they should not imperil its passage.

THE REMEDY FOR POLICE BLACKMAIL

Absolutely essential, as we said last week, to a well-disciplined police force in New York City is its radical reorganization on a military basis, with a court martial for the trial of offenses and no appeal to the civil courts. Not less necessary is a radical change in the excise law of the State as applied to the great cities.

It ought to be accepted as an axiom that in a self-governing Nation the community which makes the law should enforce the law. Laws made by the Federal Government should be enforced by the Federal Government; laws made by the State should be enforced by the State; laws made by the city should be enforced by the city. When the public opinion of the larger community is identical with the public opinion of the smaller community, this principle may be disregarded with safety. The desirability of protecting persons and property from violence and theft is realized alike in city and country; therefore the laws for the protection of persons and property, though formulated and enacted by the Legislature, can be left to be enforced by town constables, country sheriffs, and city police. But when the Legislature enacts a law which the local community does not believe in, and then leaves the enforcement to the local community, the inevitable result is non-enforcement of the law and consequent lawlessness.

This is the condition which exists in the great cities of the State of New York, especially in New York City.

The country thinks, or thinks that it thinks, that it is immoral to drink alcoholic beverages on Sunday except in a hotel. Large masses of population in New York City think that it is no more immoral to drink alcoholic beverages on Sunday in a hotel than to drink them at home or at a counter in a saloon. The consequence is that large numbers of the population of New York City send to the saloon on Sunday for a pail of beer to be drunk at home, or go to the saloon on Sunday and drink at the counter. And as the public opinion in the city, or in those sections of the city where this practice prevails, does not call on the police to enforce the Sun-

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day liquor law, the Sunday liquor law is not enforced.

One of two remedies should be applied. Either the State should enforce the law which the State has enacted, or the city should enact the law which the city is left to enforce. There are great, and in our judgment conclusive, objections to the first policy. There are no serious objections to the adoption of the second policy.

For the adoption of the second policy would simply be an extension to the people of the cities of the principle of local option which is already adopted for the regulation of the liquor traffic throughout the country districts. In the towns of New York State the people are allowed to vote on the question whether they will have any saloons at all, and also on the question whether they will have any Sunday sale. By voting to license saloons that are not hotels they vote to allow liquor-selling on a week day. By voting to license a hotel they vote to allow liquor-selling on Sunday. This privilege which is given to the people of the country districts ought also to be given to the people of the city. A very simple change in the present law would accomplish this result. It is only necessary to authorize the people of the cities, as the people of the country districts are authorized, to vote on the question whether any licenses shall be granted to sell liquor in the city, and to add a further provision for a vote on the question whether liquor-selling shall be allowed on Sunday between certain specified hours, say twelve at noon and twelve at midnight.

If the only result of the present excise law enacted by the people of the country and enforced by the people of the city were non-enforcement of legislative enactment, the evil would be bad enough. But, in fact, the evil is much greater. As there is no public opinion to sustain policemen in enforcing the Sunday liquor law, in large sections of the great cities the local option is transferred from the people of the city to the police patrolmen. The people cannot vote on the question whether the saloons shall be open on Sunday or not, but the patrolmen can determine the question whether they will close the saloons or not. Naturally, some individual policemen forget to see the open saloon if they have first been seen by the saloon-keeper or his agent. Thus arises a limited amount of blackmail. Saloons are closed if they do not bribe the policeman, and are left open if they do bribe the policeman.

But this is not all, nor is this the worst. The political organization on which the appointment, the assignment, and the promotion of the policeman largely depend has reduced blackmail to a system. It levies its Sunday tax on the saloons and collects it with great regularity. It instructs the police that the saloons which have paid this tax are not to be disturbed. If an honest or an ignorant or a careless policeman arrests a liquor-seller who has paid his Sunday tax to the political organization, the policeman is straightway transferred to another and generally less desirable precinct; not infrequently charges are trumped up against him, and he is fined for some imaginary violation of rule or neglect of duty. Thus policemen who would not voluntarily become blackmailers are compelled by their real though not nominal superiors to be the agents of a blackmailing system. The real discipline of the force is in favor of non-enforcement of the law. The result is inevitable: a community of four million people living under a law which is constantly and systematically violated, and a systematic bribe paid by the violators of law to those who are appointed to enforce the law.

That the police force of New York City have withstood as well as they have this demoralizing condition created by fatuous legislation speaks well for the personnel of the police. The police are better than the system under which they work. For them law reverses the famous saying of Gladstone; for them law makes vice easy and virtue difficult. The worst of all vices is the vice of hypocrisy. In New York State we pretend to be opposed to liquor-selling on Sunday. Then we deliberately create a system under which saloons called hotels are licensed to sell on Sunday throughout the State, and under which, in the cities, policemen are systematically encouraged and sometimes coerced into allowing the Sunday liquor law to be systematically violated in order to raise, through blackmail, a considerable sum to be divided between the policemen who are accessory to law violation and the political organization on

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which they are dependent for their official welfare.

Mayor Gaynor can do something to improve present police conditions in New York. But there will be no radical, adequate, and permanent remedy until the discipline of the police force is transferred from the civil courts to a special police court martial, and until the people of the city of New York, on whose public opinion the enforcement of law must ultimately depend, have the same opportunity which is given to the people of the country to determine what the Sunday liquor law shall be.

A PAINTER OF THE OLD SCHOOL

The death of Worthington Whittredge, at his home in Summit, New Jersey, on February 25, removes the last member of the earliest group of American landscape painters. He used often to recall the names of his old friends the painters of the "Hudson River School"—a distinguished group, variously gifted, but sharing a certain transparent sincerity of mood and an eager desire to put the landscape of the New World on canvas; and he would add, "They are all dead!" He himself, dying close upon his ninetieth birthday, saw with a clear eye and used a free and accurate brush until within a few months of his death. A man of exceptionally vigorous physique, he was also a man of exceptionally interesting temperament, attaching his friends deeply by reason of his many lovable qualities; a delightful companion, as far removed from commercial interests as if he had been born in the third century, and as free from conventional modes of speech as if he had been one of Shakespeare's contemporaries. His view of life was the artist's view, and his manner of expressing it eminently picturesque. His stories of his early experiences as a portrait painter in this country were delightfully naïve and amusing, while his accounts of his student days in Düsseldorf and his long residence in other parts of Europe were eminently characteristic, not only of him, but of the men of whom he told them.

It is many years since, as a young man in the first flush of his vigor and enthusiasm for his art, he climbed down from the top of a diligence on his way to Rome, to walk up a steep hill, and fell in with another young man, an Englishman of striking beauty and of great personal charm, going to southern Italy to paint a certain lime tree which he remembered. The world knew this young man later as Lord Leighton, one of the most accomplished though not one of the most original painters of the last half of the nineteenth century. Mr. Whittredge stood as the model for Washington, and wore Washington's uniform in Leutze's well-known picture of the great man crossing the Delaware.

It is a misfortune that Mr. Whittredge's reminiscences as they fell from his lips in familiar talk were not taken down, so full of color and character were they—from the days of Church, Durand, Bierstadt, Moran, Cole, and Kensett, painters of great landscapes, league on league of mountain ranges, vales, and forests, to the later days when he was President of the National Academy, and the still later days when his portrait was painted with such striking vitality by Mr. John Alexander. His whole life ripened in the last years in a beautiful harvest of affection and respect, the sowing of a lifelong habit of kindness and generosity.

Mr. Whittredge was one of the first men who really saw the American landscape; he was a close student, an out-of-doors painter, with a special liking for river banks, patches of shrubs, places of shadow in the deep woods, stretches of plain with cattle grazing, pale grasses. There was little in the American landscape with which he was not familiar and which he had not lovingly transcribed. His charming "Sunlight and Shadow," in the Corcoran Gallery at Washington, is an example of his accuracy of vision, his feeling for open places in the woods bathed in light. Several years ago Mr. Frank Mather said of this landscape that "as an account of a Catskill brook it is letter-perfect. So easy sandstone ledges lie up in nature, so dark water slips over, and trees overhang them; so the sun strikes fitfully through unperceived rifts in the leaf canopy."

The pioneer painters, of whom Mr. Whittredge was one, felt as if they had a

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new world to reveal, and their mission was to represent it. They did this with entire truthfulness, with feeling for its color and its modulations in light and shade. The poetic feeling came later; it was theirs to make people see.

So ends a long and fruitful life, full of energy and of dreams, overflowing with friendship; a strenuous life in its rectitude and its devotion to art; a life so preoccupied with nature, with beauty, and with work that the rush of the modern world was like a faint sound on a distant horizon; a life free from sorbid ambitions, from compromises, from low aims, from the hardness of money-getting. When such a man passes, and the incidents of his earthly career fade out of sight and the mortal part of him perishes, the immortal part begins to define itself; and Mr. Whittredge was one of those who was always putting on immortality.

LENTEN THOUGHTS

THE LIVING CHURCH

The Church has been so heavily equipped with organization, ritual, and definitions of faith that time and again hosts of people have come to feel that these things are its soul instead of its changing body. The secret of the followers of Christ is hidden in none of these things, essential as they are in their places and in their right relations. The first great revelation which the Bible makes to men is the unveiling of the sublime figure of God, the supreme Life in the supreme act of life, creation. Through the story told in the Old Testament the one great fact always in the foreground is the living God, making himself known to men, not by abstract statements and formal announcement of principles, but in and through the actual experiences of men; that is to say, through their vital contact with the facts and forces of life. When the Christ came, he called himself the Life, and declared that his mission was to bring life in more abundant measure than men had ever known it before. The one great word which the Apostles carried to the world was: He is risen from the dead. The Church was organized to bear perpetual witness to that sublime fact; and the most impressive evidence of his resurrection is to be found in the wonderful change of character that came upon those who had followed him with faltering step and unsteady purpose during the years of his ministry, when they walked and talked and supped with him, after they had seen him in the last forty days of his human life.

The supreme word which describes the Christian and the Christian Church is not organization, however ancient, nor ritual, however beautiful and helpful, nor creed, however adequate in vision and love; but life. The Church is the unbroken company of witnesses to the resurrection of Christ; not those who have seen him in the flesh, nor those who believe the most exact statements about him, nor those who worship him most fittingly; but those whose lives bear witness to the mighty power of a living Christ, and who show in spirit, word, and deed his presence until he come again. A historic Church may be and often has been a living Church, but the test of its authority to speak for Christ lies not in its unbroken tradition but in its victorious and fruitful life. A historic Church may cumber the ground with its splendid temples, its beautiful altars, its treasures of noble memories; while the living Church may be an obscure and scattered remnant. A Church ought to be a sublime revelation of a living God to living men; if its soul is supreme and glowing in its body, the body cannot be too gloriously appareled. But woe to the Church when its history becomes more important than its present ministry; when it speaks habitually of a great past instead of speaking habitually to a living present; when it is more concerned with its authority than with its vitality.

A living Church, being made up of men and women who are of the great army of witnesses of the living Christ, must glow with love for those for whom he died, must overflow with helpfulness for those to whom he ministered, must hold a blazing torch aloft to guide and hearten and inspire those whom he came to redeem from fear and sin. The evidence of life is activity, and without activity there is no true life, and this activity must take two forms: worship and energetic, daily, practical service. It involves the expression of life not only in love of God but in love

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of man; a love which goes out of itself and seeks the good of others as Christ sought that good by gifts of faith, of helpfulness, of ministry, of protection.

THE SPECTATOR

It is alluring to speculate what might have been the case had there not been in his world a creature like the dog, of which man could make an ally and a comrade. The only compensation for birth into such a dogless world would be ignorance of what we had lost. The gap between this and any other four-footed domestic is as great as that between it and us. The cat is an ornament, the horse a servant and a means of pride rather than a friend. Neither is responsive or communicative—you cannot satisfactorily exchange ideas with any other animal than the dog. We understand him and he comprehends us. The Spectator is inclined to think them nearer, mentally and sympathetically, than is usually conceded; not that he would elevate the animal beyond precedent, but take down the man a few pegs. Some dogs are pretty nearly human; but some men are pretty nearly canine. This nearness probably accounts for the fact that the dog has never figured as a divinity, as have many other animals—the bear, for example, and the Theban cat. He was not mysterious and he was loved, hence he was not worshiped.

The reader will have justly concluded by this time that the Spectator has been to the winter's Dog Show in New York. Of course he has. He wandered for hours about the huge kennel into which Madison Square Garden was transformed, happiest among the terriers, but enjoying the whole vociferous and aristocratic crew, for there were no "curs of low degree"—stroking heads, pulling ears (very gently, for dogs' ears are tender), offering the back of his hand as a proper card of introduction, shaking courteously uplifted paws, pushing back crazy puppies, and bracing himself to hold the weight of solemn bloodhounds that would stand with paws on both shoulders and gaze benignantly into his eyes without a single impolite sniff of sleuth-like suspicion. When he went home, Waggles, who is not a show dog, met him calmly and smelt with cool inquiry of his hands and all up and down the Spectator's trouser-legs as far as his black nose would reach. His master told him where he had been, and how for hours he had been colloguing and petting and flirting with other dogs, but that he had come back just as well satisfied with his own little dog as ever; whereupon Waggles's stubby tail became a fan of light, and with a bound he was up in his master's lap and cuddling confidently. The Spectator wonders, dear brethren, why wives can't be as reasonable as dogs; but— Well, no matter.

The Show this year was surpassing in its numbers and excellence—a strong, big show "with the bark on"—two thousand dogs, all high-toned in every sense of the word. The joyous roar which made the Madison Square welkin ring was very remarkable. It was the composite voice of the élite of dogdom. No currish yap-yapping, but the chesty base of mastiffs and St. Bernards, monkish in their fat inutility, the honest bark of hounds, the bell-like notes of beagles, the eager clamor of terriers, the sharp treble of hundreds of little fellows—all these mingled in one general canine note which made your ears hark back to the primeval stock. Yet this composite wolf-voice roared in friendly, though excited, accents; there was no snarl in it—nothing to frighten one—no expression of mob spirit. The voice was savage, but its expression was civilized. The animal it represented was not hungry, nor scared, nor angry; it was elated, excited, talkative, but pretty nearly normal.

A powerful influence in sustaining human interest in dogs is their remarkable capacity for variation and for producing fecund hybrids.; so that they readily adapt themselves individually and as a race to our changing circumstances and whims. This plasticity has been worked upon ever since the human race began, for undoubtedly the first kind of animal primitive man attached to himself was this one, and that right early. When one thinks that a million generations would not be too long a time to measure dog

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history, the diversity of breeds exhibited at such shows as this is not so astonishing. It is said that about three hundred distinct and regulated varieties exist, and no one can guess how many may have arisen and been lost in the past. There are representations in ancient art of kinds of dogs which do not now exist, as well as many that are familiar to us. Some, not long ago numerous and fashionable, are almost obsolete. There were at this Show, for example, only two whippets—a sort of demi-greyhound seen prancing around every lady's feet in those days, three or four centuries agone, when grace counted for so much. And where are the Roman mollossians, the sau-hounds, and the huge German boarhounds of yore? Surely the modern great Dane no more represents the sturdy Thuringian boarhound than those thin-nosed, vastly beruffed prize collies over there represent the hard-working, spry-thinking shepherds' dogs of auld Scotia.

Many of the breeds most numerously represented and popular were very modern—the dear little Boston bulls, for instance. Most of the terriers as we now know them have been differentiated within a century; several, like the Airedales and Bedlingtons, within half that time; and nearly all are British. A century ago a lot of small, active dogs were to be seen all over the British Isles. Some were short-haired, leggy, and prevailingly black-and-tan, and these were ratters; others were more stocky, with short, crooked legs and shaggy coats, and they were good for rabbiting and hunting badgers and driving or pulling foxes out of "hollow harbors'—any sort of underground work. Hence, from long ago, they were known in general as "earth-dogs," or "terrars" (Latin, *terrarius*). As a faster style of hunting arose, following the improvement of the horses and hounds used by fox-hunters, which was so marked toward the end of the eighteenth century, when the new Arab blood began to make itself evident in the English hunter, the masters of hounds began to improve their useful little allies, the diggers, by selective breeding with beagles. They wanted a dog with the courage, snap, and muscular force of the "tarrier," but longer-legged, so as to keep pace with the increased speed of the pack, and mainly white (though black or tan markings matched well with the hounds), so that it might be easily followed by the eye among the herbage and brush. Thus arose our familiar fox-terriers, and so late an acquisition are they that it was not until about 1860 that a separate class was made for them, even in English shows. Another fact to be remembered is that the earliest fox-terriers had a rough but short coat; were, indeed, those just now coming into general popularity as the "wire-haired" form, for the smooth-coated variety, now so widespread, was originally a younger outgrowth.

A man of letters must have many a delightful reminder as he strolls up and down these alleys lined with faces all aglow with eager intelligence and friendly interest in him. How Ouida loved her mastiffs and Sir Walter Scott his great deerhounds! They sit here side by side. Over on the wall hangs that long-familiar print from Landseer's painting of the noble Newfoundlander—two specimens are all the Show affords of this neglected race; and he who likes to sit up at night chuckling over his "Noctes" smiles as he thinks of Christopher's Bronte. Here, too, are a few Dandie Dinmonts—a curiously hoary, unkempt little old dog which would never have been heard of had it not been for the author of "Waverley;" and the spaniels that have figured in so many portraits of the Reynolds and Gainsborough and Copley schools. What scenes of the English Midlands and the Scottish Highlands, in books as well as in reality, recur to memory and imagination as one strolls past the foxhounds and the collies! Bob, son of Battle, would have made a poor figure here, perhaps, but with how broad a blue ribbon has he been decorated by literary judges! Have you read "The Bar Sinister" and forgotten it as you passed the bull-terriers? Does not your eye dim a little as you stoop to pat the black head of a French bull and you recall the tender grace with which Maeterlinck has written of his Pelléas—"Young, ardent, and believing, bringing me, in some wise, from the depths of unwearied nature, quite fresh news of life"?

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HIGH PRICES AND THE COST OF LIVING

BY FRANK GREENE

MANAGING EDITOR OF "BRADSTREET'S JOURNAL"

WHEN the history of 1910 comes to be written, not the least memorable of its happenings to be chronicled will probably be the great agitation, partaking of the proportions of a National revolt, against the high prices of food.

It can hardly be said that the agitation came in the nature of a surprise. For many months prices of commodities, and particularly of food, had risen steadily despite growing public uneasiness and dissatisfaction. In the autumn of 1909 the matter became the subject of wide attention, even the President's Message at the assembling of Congress noting the burden placed upon the general public, while several State executives recommended legislative inquiries into the subject and many public men were variously quoted as to the causes of the prolonged and heavy advance. Things reached an acute stage in January, 1910, when a record-breaking high point was reached for commodities as a whole. In the second and third weeks of January the smoldering discontent sprang into flame, scores of "Eat no meat" and "30 cent egg" clubs were formed, and thousands of consumers, apparently as if by prearrangement, stopped buying meat foods. Immediately following this came disorganized retail and wholesale meat, egg, and butter prices, glutted live stock markets, and cancellations of shipments of live cattle and dressed meat. Later still came a slight rally in prices of the affected articles. Coincidently Congress, in both houses of which resolutions of inquiry were pending, took action, the Ways and Means Committee of the lower house beginning work on the subject, while State legislative and local municipal bodies started other inquiries, grand juries began probing cold-storage warehouses, and announcement was made that the Federal authorities would prosecute the alleged Beef Trust as an unlawful combination. On February 1 a slightly lower level of prices ruled. Here the matter rests, if indeed the subject can be said to rest at all, and the general public, some of whom, by the way, do not seem to have stood fast in their positon of voluntary abstention from carnivorous food, await developments.

So far, it should be noted, the agitation against high prices has been largely confined to food products, first probably because the subject appeals to the most sensitive portion of the body, and next because of the general impression, which seems to be well founded, that food prices have been most seriously affected of all the groups of commodities. There has been and there is now being manifested, however, some uneasiness as to whether the propaganda against high prices may not be directed against other commodities that go to make up the sum total of public consumption.

It may also be remarked here that public agitation against high prices is no new thing. Bread riots in times of scarcity have been heard of frequently in the world's history, and, if old newspaper accounts are correct, a somewhat similar revolt against high food prices occurred just after the close of the Civil War of 1861–65, which, by the way, is frequently referred to as the only period comparable to the present so far as high food prices are concerned. In 1890, a time of prosperity like the present, it may be recalled that there was something like a country-wide revolt against high retail prices of other commodities than food.

In order that it may be shown what the country has had to contend with in the last few months, an explanation of

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past and present price movements will be found enlightening. For the purpose of gaining an approximation of the net rise or fall in commodity prices, what are known as "index numbers" have been devised. These systems are variously constructed. Perhaps the simplest and most quickly compiled of all is that first made up by "Bradstreet's Journal" in 1895, and published quarterly or monthly since that year. This index number is the sum total of the wholesale prices per pound of 96 commodities of common use. In 1901, Carroll D. Wright, then Chief of the old Department of Labor, took the average of commodity prices for the ten years from 1890 to 1900 as a basis for calculating later price movements. Abroad there are several index numbers employed, chief of these being those made up by the London "Economist" and by Sauerbeck. The Department of Labor report for 1907 showed the highest recorded level of prices reached since 1890, the rise from 1897, the low point as worked out by the Department, being 44.4 per cent. "Bradstreet's" index number for the year 1907 showed an advance over their low point year, 1896, of exactly 50 per cent. As regards the course of American prices since, it may be said that "Bradstreet's" index number for the entire year 1909 showed a decrease of 4.3 per cent from 1907, but the number for January, 1910, surpassed that for the entire year 1907 by 3.7 per cent. In the latter year the high point of commodity prices as revealed by "Bradstreet's" index number was reached on March 1. This high point was practically equaled on December 1, 1909, and surpassed by the January 1, 1910, index number by one per cent. At the January 1, 1910, level, prices showed an advance of 19.5 per cent over June 1, 1908, the low point following the 1907 panic; they were higher by from 3 to 20 per cent than on January 1 of any of the preceding five years, and the rise from the low 1896 point was 61 per cent. The index number for February 1, 1910, shows a decline of 1.7 per cent from January 1.

To put the proportions of the movement in another way, a person buying one pound each of 96 different commodities in leading markets of this country on January 1, 1910, would pay $9.23 for them, a sum 10 cents greater than on December 1, 1909, or March 1, 1907; 97 cents more than was paid on January 1 a year ago; $1.51 more than on June 1, 1908; $1.66 more than on January 1, 1901, nine years ago; and $3.53 more than on July 1, 1896.

That the recent rise in commodity prices is not confined to this country alone is shown by the fact that the London "Economist's" index number advanced 9 per cent in the year 1909, as against an advance of 11.7 per cent in "Bradstreet's" number in the United States in the same period.

Following will be found a table showing the percentages of increase or decrease in the different groups of commodities at the January 1, 1910, level, as compared with the low ebb of July 1, 1896, January 1 nine years ago, March 1, 1907 (the previous high point), and January 1, 1909, one year ago:

PERCENTAGES OF CHANGES

	Increase over July 1, 1896.	Increase over Jan. 1, 1901.	Increase over Mar. 1, 1907.	Increase over Jan. 1, 1909.
Breadstuffs	100.0	49.0	30.0	6.8
Live stock	116.0	62.0	20.0	19.0
Provisions	73.0	32.0	12.0	13.0
Fruits	40.0	*12.0	*15.0	17.0
Hides and leather	55.0	28.0	7.0	6.0
Textiles	73.0	27.0	*0.1	15.0
Metals	65.0	7.0	*26.0	7.5
Coal and coke	43 0	19.0	*13.0	9.5
Oils	79.0	12.0	*8.7	*3.9
Naval stores	136.0	67.0	*20.0	43.0
Building materials	15.0	*6.0	*8.7	*0.8
Chemicals and drugs	*9.0	*23.0	*15.0	*6.4
Miscellaneous	89.0	34.0	12.0	45.0
Total	61.0	22.0	1.1	11.7

*Decrease.

Of course it cannot escape attention here that by far the greatest advances as a whole have been shown by farm products, these including breadstuffs and live stock, while provisions, made largely from these two classes, are also much higher; though the greatest single relative advance has been in naval stores, which are products of the forest, and, like foods, classable as natural as opposed to products purely of manufacture. One class of commodities, chemicals and drugs, it will be seen, has lagged behind all the rest, and, in fact, shows decreases from all the earlier dates mentioned.

As showing what occurred in the period from the low point of 1896 to the high point of 1910, the following percentages of advance in different staples will be found interesting:

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ADVANCE IN PRICES, 1896-1910

CRUDE FARM PRODUCTS	Per Cent.	MANUFACTURED FARM PRODUCTS	Per Cent.
Wheat	100	Flour	66
Corn	106	Beef carcasses	50
Oats	119	Hogs "	196
Barley	133	Mutton "	109
Rye	127	Pork, barreled	196
Beans	148	Bacon	202
Peas	114	Hams	45
Potatoes	100	Lard	201
Eggs	216	Butter	140
Milk	66	Cheese	164
Cotton	113	Cottonseed oil	163
Wool	118	Hides	105
Cottonseed	250	Leather	50
Live beeves	72	Linseed oil	97
Live sheep	50		
Live hogs	152		

MANUFACTURED GOODS	Per Cent.		Per Cent.
Print cloths	64	Rosin	165
Ginghams	40	Turpentine	140
Sheetings	50	Tar	67
Pig iron, Eastern	50	Yellow pine	50
Steel billets	35	Spruce timber	60
Glass	23	Hemlock timber	90
News paper	7		

IMPORTED GOODS	Per Cent.	MINE PRODUCTS	Per Cent.
Wool	87	Anthracite coal	17
Hemp	50	Bituminous coal	14
Jute	11	Connellsville coke	32
Flax	172	Copper	13
Tin	145	Lead	56
Olive oil	32	Petroleum, crude	23
Currants	84	Lime	45

While comparisons with the low point reached in 1896, a year of political excitement following three years of panic depression, is vitiated by the fact that at that date most products were really abnormally low in price, it is worth noting that all products are not higher now than they were even in 1896, and as showing this the following comparison will prove of interest:

Lower.	Unchanged.	Slightly higher.
Coffee	Molasses	Castor oil
Sugar	Steel rails	Building brick
Tea		Hay
Raw silk		Refined petroleum, for export
Tin plates		
Steel beams		
Silver		
Nails		
Bicarbonate soda		
Borax		
Carbolic acid		
Caustic soda		
Quinine		

Next to the fact that prices of commodities as a whole are evidently higher now than in any year since 1890, and Civil War records not being available, chief interest naturally is expressed as to the causes of this strain under which American industry and, through it, trade, commerce, and manufacture are laboring. There are probably one or more general or special causes assigned for every commodity included in the price comparisons, and this in itself is a reason for the prevailing public uncertainty regarding the mainsprings of the advance. Following will be found some of the more widely mentioned general and special causes:

Money supply:
- Increased gold supply.
- Increased bank circulation.
- Cheapness breeding speculation.
- Increase of credit based on money.

Demand and supply:
- Increased population, including immigration.
- Reduced land fertility.
- Reduced farming population in older States.
- Independence of Western farmers.
- Increased Western banking facilities.
- Decline of neighborhood farming.
- Lack of farming intelligence.
- Lack of farm labor.

Other causes:
- Higher, more luxurious standards of living.
- Extravagance.
- Changes in marketing and distribution.
- Increased retail charges.
- Increased taxation.
- Tariff restrictions.
- Alleged trusts.
- Cold storage systems.
- Wastefulness due to ignorance of food values.
- Labor union regulations affecting labor cost.
- Lessened hours of labor.
- Diversion of labor to other than farming pursuits.

It would seem as if there were enough causes above mentioned to cover even the present wonderful advance in prices. Regarding some of these the following observations, however, may be made:

1. If redundant money or credit supply is held to be mainly responsible, it may be remarked that prices have gone down frequently in periods of large gold production, as, for instance, from 1873 to 1896; and evidence is not apparent that the increase in gold supply or bank currency and credits based thereon have been greater than the increase in the world's business justified.

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2. It may be said that demand and supply, with all that they imply, are entitled to a greater weight than any single purely financial cause. Indeed, without adequate demand, it is hard to see how an increased money supply only could produce the apparent absolute scarcity revealed in some lines. Then, again, the great cheapening processes witnessed from 1870 to 1900 as a result of the opening of the West have apparently culminated, and there is an apparent vacuum to be filled either by the opening of new lands or by the re-entry of the farms of the East or of Europe into the fields of production. This country, and particularly the West, is no longer producing the vast surplus store of food products which were thrown on the world's markets from 1870 to 1895, with the result of breaking prices down to or below the cost of production, ruining the Eastern as well as the European agriculturist, and depressing the prices of Eastern farm lands near great Eastern cities to levels only one-fourth or one-half those ruling in the newer States of the West. Probably never again, however, will we hear of good wheat being fed to hogs, or of corn being cheaper to burn than coal or wood, in our Western States. Argentina, Canada, and Siberia may, it is true, repeat the American story of soil spoliation and food waste; but this seems doubtful, because the world's mouths to be fed have greatly increased, and civilization—and therefore consumption—has, measurably speaking, moved closer to its last frontier. In this country there has been a deflection from the agricultural industry to other lines. That is, the relative increase in the number employed in agriculture has not been so great as in other, non-food-producing lines. In 1900 only 35.7 per cent of the country's population was engaged in agriculture, as against 37.7 per cent in 1890 and 44.3 per cent in 1880.

3. There are evidences that increased cost of municipal government operation has culminated in higher taxation, thus making for higher costs of wholesale and retail distribution in the cities. Then, too, the changed habits of many of the people, the falling into disuse of the old-time central markets, and the necessarily increased cost of retail food distribution must be reckoned with. Possibly this may be responsible for some of the public feeling that the retailer has taken advantage of public necessity to put on a liberal slice of profit for himself. That the world's, and more especially this country's, standards of living have risen in other directions cannot be gainsaid. This might be illustrated by a score of examples, but may be summarized in John Stuart Mill's observation that the luxury of to-day is the necessity of to-morrow. Along these lines might be cited the wonderful prosperity of the automobile and its kindred industries. One estimate of the country's output of these machines this year is 160,000, while the output for this and six past years is placed at over 400,000. Again, it is known that in some lines of labor wages have increased while at the same time a reduced number of hours is worked, making for a relative increase of labor cost as compared with former years. Undoubtedly the diversion of labor from purely productive lines to non-productive industry constitutes another great tax upon the producing branches. Tariff restrictions, by narrowing markets and movements, exercise some effects, but advances in prices in open as in closed markets show that world-wide causes rule as a whole, while the economic benefits of modern systems of refrigeration and storage probably outweigh the incidental advantages conferred by these inventions upon the speculator in food commodities.

From out of this great mass of discussion and as the result of examination of detailed price records several central facts show clearly. One is that prices in leading markets of the cruder forms of farm produce, of meat-producing animals, and of products made therefrom increased to a greater extent than have the prices of manufactured goods. In fact, the gains in prices of some few forest products alone exceed the increases shown in farm produce and the goods derived therefrom. It is incredible that any combination or trust of upward of 12,000,000 farmers is responsible for this rise, and in this direction at least the law of supply and demand pure and simple seems to have had free sway. Something may be said, it is true, for the theory that in the old years of lavish production

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and business depression farm produce may have fallen lower than manufactured goods, and that in the present rise food products, absolute necessities as they are, have risen to a greater extent than have any others. But—and here is where the question of so-called trust domination comes in—the fact remains that the gains in the prices of manufactured goods, and particularly of those goods associated in the popular mind with trust control, have not, in point of fact, risen as greatly as have the products of the farm. If supply and demand are conceded to have had free play in the matter of crude farm products, what is to be said in favor of the theory that trusts have made for higher prices in manufactured goods, which are shown to have not advanced nearly as much? Here it may be suggested that if high cost of food involves increased cost of labor, and later of other commodities, the future of prices of manufactured goods, unless controlled by increased machinery efficiency, which in itself may have been already operative in holding down manufactured goods, may contain several problems to be solved. Finally, it may be said that, generally speaking, the present high prices of food, after all, carry with them their own cure. If one result of high-priced farm produce is to induce larger production thereof, incidentally discouraging the herding of population in manufacturing centers and drawing a larger part of the people to a freer, healthier life out of doors, the country's best interests will be greatly conserved.

THE YELLOW VALLEY

BY ELISABETH WOODBRIDGE

WE were on our way to the Yellow Valley. We had been pushing against the wind, through the red March mud of a plowed field. Mud is a very good thing in its place, and if its place is not a plowed field in March, I know of no better. But it does not encourage lightness of foot. At an especially big and burly gust of wind I stopped, turned my back for respite, and dropped into the lee of Jonathan. Wind is a good thing, too, in its place, but one does not care to drown in it.

"Jonathan," I gasped, "this isn't spring; it's winter of the most furious description. Let's reform the calendar and put up signs to warn the flowers. But I want my spring! I want it now!"

"Well," said Jonathan, "there it is. Look!" and he pointed across the brush of the near fence-line, where a meadow stretched away, brown with the stubble and matted tangle of last year's grass. Half-way up the springy slope, in a little fold of the hillside, was a shimmer of green—vivid, wonderful.

I forgot the wind. "Oh-h! Think of being a cow now and eating that! Eating spring itself!"

"If you were a cow," said Jonathan, with the usual masculine command of applicable information, "they wouldn't let you eat it."

"They wouldn't! Why not? Does it make them sick?"

"No, crazy."

"Crazy!"

"Just that. Crazy for grass. They won't touch hay any more, and there isn't enough grass for them—and there you are!"

"Did you make that up as you went along, Jonathan?"

"Ask any farmer."

But I think I will not ask a farmer. He might say it was not true, and I like to think it is. I am sorry the cows cannot have their grass, but glad they have the good taste to refuse hay. I should, if I were a cow. Not being one, I do not need an actual patch of green nibble to set me crazy. The smell of the earth after a thaw, a breath of soft air, a wave of delicious sweetness, in April, in March, in February—when it comes in January I harden my heart and try not to notice—this is enough to spoil me for the dry fodder of winter. Hay may be good and whole-

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some, but I have had my taste of spring grass, and it is enough. That or nothing. No more hay for me!

What that strange sweetness of the early spring is I have never fully discovered. The fragrance of flowers is in it—hepaticas, white violets, arbutus—yet it is none of these. It comes before any of the flowers are even astir, when the arbutus buds are still tight little green points, when the hepaticas have scarcely pushed open their winter sheaths, while their soft little gray-furred heads are still tucked down snugly, like a bird's head under its wing. Before even the snowdrops at our feet and the maples overhead have thought of blossoming, a soft breath may blow across our path filled with this wondrous fragrance. It is like a dream of May. One might believe the fairies were passing by.

For years I was completely baffled by it. But one March, in the farm orchard, I found out part of the secret. I was planting my sweet-peas when the well-remembered and bewildering fragrance blew across me. I sprang up and ran up the wind, and there, in the midst of the old orchard, I came upon an old apple tree just cut down by the thrift of Jonathan's farmer, who has no silly weakness for old apple trees. The fresh-cut wood was moist with sap, and as I bent over it—ah, there it was! Here were my hepaticas, my arbutus, here in the old apple tree! Such a surprise! I sat down beside it to think it over. I was sorry it was cut down, but glad it had told me its secret before it was made into logs and piled in the woodshed. Blazing in the fireplace it would tell me many things, but it might perhaps not have told me that.

And so I knew part of the secret. But only part. For the same fragrance has blown to me often where there were no orchards and no newly felled apple trees, and I have never, except this once, been able to trace it. If it is the flowing sap in all trees, why are not the spring woods full of it? But they are not full of it; it comes only now and then, with tantalizing capriciousness. Do sound trees exhale it, certain kinds, when the sap starts, or must they have been cut or bruised, if not by the ax, perhaps by the winter winds and the ice storms? I do not know. I only know that when that breath of sweetness comes, it is the very breath of spring itself; it is the call of spring out of winter—spring grass.

When the call of the spring grass comes, there is always one spot that draws me with a special insistence, and every year we have much the same talk about it.

"Jonathan," I say, "let's go to the Yellow Valley."

"Why," says Jonathan, "there will be more new birds up on the ridge."

"I don't care about new birds. The old ones do very well for me."

"And you might find the first hepaticas under Indian Rock."

"I know. We'll go there next."

"And if we went farther up the river, we might see some black duck."

"Very likely; but I don't feel as if I particularly had to see black duck to-day."

"What do you have to see?"

"Nothing special. Just plain spring."

That is the charm of the Yellow Valley. It offers no spectacular inducements, no bargain-counter attractions in the shape of new arrivals among the birds or flowers. One returns from it with no trophies of any kind, nothing to put down in one's note-book, if one keeps a note-book—from which industry may I be forever preserved! But it is a place to go to and be quiet, which is good for us all, especially in the springtime, when there is so much going on in the world, and especially lately, since "nature study" has driven people into being so unceasingly busy when they are outdoors. Opera-glasses and bird-books have their place, no doubt, in the advance of mankind, but they often seem to me nothing but more machinery coming in between us and the real things. Perhaps it was once true that when people went out to view "nature," they did not see enough. Now, I fancy, they see too much; they cannot see the spring for the birds. Their motto is that of Rikki-Tikki, the mongoose, "Run and find out"—an excellent motto for a mongoose, but for people on a spring ramble—

The unquenchable ardor of the bird-lover, so called, fills me with dismay. One enthusiast, writing in a school journal, describes the difficulties of following up the birds: "Often eyes all around one's head, with opera-glasses focused at each

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pair, would not suffice to keep the restless birds in view." If this is the ideal of the bird-lover, it is not mine. I wonder she did not wish for extra pairs of legs to match each set of eyes and opera-glasses, and a divisible body, so that she might scamper off in sections after all these marvels. For myself, one pair of eyes give me, I find, all the satisfaction and delight I know what to do with, and I cannot help feeling that, if I had more, I should have less. The same writer speaks of the "maddening" warbler notes. Why maddening? Because, forsooth, there are thirty warblers, and one cannot learn all their names. What a pity to be maddened by a little warbler! And about a matter of names, too. After all, the bird, the song, is the thing. And it seems a pity to carry the chasing of bird-notes quite so far. They are meant, I feel sure, to be hearkened to in quietness of spirit, to be tasted delicately, as one would a wine. The life of the opera-glass hunter, compared to mine, seems to me like the experience of a tea-taster compared to that of one who sits in cozy and irresponsible enjoyment of the cup her friend hands her.

And so there always comes a time in the spring when I must go to my Yellow Valley. A car ride, a walk on through plain little suburbs, a scramble across fields to a seldom-used railway track, a swing out along the ties, then off across more fields, over a little ridge, and—there! Oh, the soft glory of color! We are at the west end of a miniature valley, full of afternoon sunlight slanting across a level blur of yellows and browns. On one side low brown hills enfold it, on the other runs a swift little river, whose steep farther bank is overhung with hemlocks and laurel in brightening spring green. It is a very tiny valley—one could almost throw a stone across it—and the whole bottom is filled with waving grass, waist-high, of a wonderful pale straw color; last year's grass, which the winter snows never seem to mat down, thick-set with the tall brown stalks of last year's goldenrod and mullein and primrose. The trees and bushes are dwarf oaks, with their old leafage still clinging in tawny masses, and willows, with their bunches of slim yellow shoots. Even the little river is yellow-brown, from the sand and pebbles and leaves of its bed, and the sun, as it slants down the length of the valley, wraps it in a warm yellow haze.

I call the valley mine, for no one else seems to know it. The long grass is never cut, but left to wave its glory of yellow all through the fall and winter and spring. There is a little foot-path running through it, but I never see any one on it. I often wonder who makes all the foot-paths I know where no one ever seems to pass. Is it rabbits, or ghosts? Whoever they may be, in this case, they do not trouble me, and the valley is as much mine as though I had cut it out of a mediæval romance.

It is always very quiet here. At least it seems so, though full of sound, as the world always is. But its sounds are its own; perhaps that is the secret: the rustle of the oak leaves as the wind fumbles among them; the swish-swish of the long dry grasses, which can be heard only if one sits down in their midst, very still; the light, purling sounds of the river; the soft gush of water about some bending branch as its tip catches and drags in the shifting current. The winds lose a little of their fierceness as they drop into the valley, and they seem to have left behind them all the sounds of the outer world which they usually bear. If now and then they waft hitherward the long call of a locomotive, they soften it till it is only a dreamy reminder.

It is strange that in a spot so specially full of the tokens of last year's life—the dry grasses, the old oak leaves not yet pushed off by the new buds—where the only green is of the hemlocks and laurels that have weathered the winter,—it is strange that in such a spot one should feel the immanence of spring. Perhaps it is the bluebird that does it. For it is the bluebird's valley as well as mine. There are other birds there, but not many. And it is the bluebird which best voices the spirit of the place. Most birds in the spring imply an audience. The song-sparrow, with the lift and the lilt of his song, sings to the universe; the red-wing calls to all the sunny world to be gleeful with him; the long-drawn sweetness of the meadow-lark floats over broad meadows and wide horizons; the bobolink, in the tumbling eagerness of his

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jubilation, is for every one to hear. But the bluebird sings to himself. His gentle notes, not heard but overheard, are for those who listen softly. And in the Yellow Valley he is at home.

I am home, too, and I find there something that I find nowhere else so well. Its charm is in the simpleness of its appeal:

"Only the mightier movement sounds and passes,
Only winds and rivers—"

I bring back from it a memory of sunshine and grass, bird-notes and running water, the broad realities of nature. Nay, more than a memory—a mood that holds—a certain poise of spirit that comes from a sense of the largeness and sweetness and sufficiency of the whole live, growing world. Spring grass—the rare fragrance of the spring air—is the call. The Yellow Valley holds the answer.

THE ETHICAL TEACHINGS OF JESUS

II.—RIGHTEOUSNESS

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

Accumulating wealth Jesus does not condemn

What did Jesus Christ teach about righteousness? What, that is, did he teach about our relations to our fellow-men?

We have seen that he did not condemn the desire for pleasure. Neither did he condemn the desire for acquisition. A Socialistic friend said to me the other day, "Do you know there are some people who really think that it is right to be rich!" Jesus Christ was one of the men who think that it is right to be rich. He did not condemn wealth. On the contrary, he approved of wealth; he approved of the accumulation of wealth, and he approved of the use of accumulated wealth to accumulate more wealth. He did this in a well-known parable. He told the story of a man who gathered his servants together and gave to one servant five talents, and to another servant two talents, and to another servant one talent, and left them to manage the property. When he came back, the man who had the five talents had traded with the five and made five more talents, and Jesus commended him; and the servant who had the two talents had traded with the two and made four more talents, and Jesus commended him; and the third man, who had wrapped his talent up in a napkin and said, It is not right to make wealth, Jesus condemned as a slothful servant. I am aware that we have spiritualized this parable; and we have done well to spiritualize it. But the parable is none the less true without a spiritual interpretation; its direct and immediate meaning is true as well as its indirect and spiritual meaning. Jesus never condemned thrift or industry or the accumulation of property.

What Jesus did condemn was making the accumulation of property an end in life. Jesus very rarely used the language of contempt. I do not think that he ever called a man a fool but once. That was in a story he told of a certain rich man who had his barns full to overflowing and who said, "What shall I do? I have more property invested than I know what to do with; where shall I invest what is coming in?" He said, "I know what I will do; I will build some more big barns"—I will get some more boxes in the safe deposit company, would be the American form—"and I will try to find a place for my overflowing wealth there." The end of the story I will give in the words of the Master: "God said unto him, Thou fool, this night thy soul shall be required of thee: then whose shall those things be, which thou hast provided?"

Hoarding wealth Jesus does condemn

To Jesus accumulation was not wrong. But to accumulate for the sake of accumulation was both sin and folly. It was making the man the servant of things, not things the servant of man. In interpreting the words of Jesus we

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need to be careful not to fall into the error into which some interpreters, both orthodox and radical, have fallen—that of interpreting them as though they were the words of a revised statute. In point of fact, there are only four words of Jesus which we possess at all: "Eli, Eli, lama sabachthani!" These are Aramaic; Jesus taught in Aramaic. All the other words of Jesus we have translated into the Greek; and most of us have that Greek translated into English; that is to say, instead of having the very words of Jesus, we have the translation of a translation of his teaching. This of itself is a sufficient and conclusive reason why we should not literalize in our interpretation of the words of Jesus. But if we are going to literalize, let us literalize consistently and not inconsistently. My radical friend declares that the teachings of Jesus are not practicable, that we cannot carry them out in life, and that we do not pretend to do so. Jesus, he reminds us, said, "Lay not up for yourselves treasures upon earth;" and Christians do universally lay up for themselves treasures upon earth; every man that owns a house and lot, or a share of stock in a corporation, or a life insurance policy, or money in a savings bank, has laid up for himself treasure upon earth. But Jesus did not say, "Lay not up for yourselves treasures upon earth." He said, "Lay not up for yourselves treasures upon earth *where moth and rust doth corrupt and where thieves break through and steal.*" And no sensible American does. Moth and rust do not get at Mr. Rockefeller's oil wells, nor at the Sugar Trust's sugar, and thieves do not often break through and steal a railway or an insurance company or a savings bank.

What Jesus condemned was hoarding wealth; he never condemned possessing it or using it for the benefit of society. In the first century the rich man bought jewels with his money, put them in a pot and buried them in the earth, or he bought rich garments with his money and hung them in his house or displayed them on his person. Thieves and rust got at the buried treasure; moths at the closeted treasure. There are still a few ignorant, distrustful foreigners who tie up their money in a stocking and hide it in a trunk, where thieves break through and steal; and there are a few ignorant and extravagant society women who put their money in inartistic dresses made for display, which a change in fashions makes useless before the moths can get at them. These exceptional perpetrators of folly may well take the counsel of Jesus to heart. But the great mass of American wealth is active; it is serving the community, it is building a railway to open a new country to settlement by the homeless, it is operating a railway to carry grain from the harvests of the West to the unfed millions of the East, it is extracting coal from our hills for our warmth, and oil from our hills for our light, and grain from our prairies for our food, and steel and copper from our mountain-sides for our instruments of toil. We do not lay up for ourselves treasures where moth and rust doth corrupt. We harness it and set it at work in innumerable forms of beneficial activity. Not having wealth and using it for the world's betterment, but hoarding it unused, Jesus condemned.

Oppression and neglect of the poor he condemns

This hoarding of wealth, this acquisition and possession of it for its own sake, he condemns, because it inevitably carries with it, if not oppression of the poor, at least indifference to them and neglect of them. Nowhere in the literature of any country will be found a more bitter invective than that which he pronounced against the men who devour widows' houses and for a pretense make long prayers. Outside the walls of Jerusalem, in the valley of Gehenna, a bonfire was always burning, on which the offal of the city was cast to be destroyed. "Serpents, race of vipers," he cried to these pious robbers of the poor, "how can ye escape the judgment of Gehenna?" You who pride yourselves on your social position and your orthodox religion are as the offal of the universe. How can you escape being cast out and destroyed?

But these are not the only rich men whom he denounced. He condemned not only the rich who oppressed the poor, but, in almost equally vigorous terms, the rich who neglected the poor. In orthodox Pharisaism was current a pictured

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underworld, afterwards more fully portrayed in mediæval literature, of a tormenting hell, to which were condemned the pagans for their worship of false gods. Twice Jesus used the picture to enforce a lesson very different from that of either Pharisaism or mediævalism.

Once he used it in a dramatic parable composed of two scenes. In the first scene a rich man was depicted, clothed in purple and fine linen, faring sumptuously every day, and wholly indifferent to the poor man who lay uncared for at his gate. Even the dogs had more compassion, and came to lick the poor man's sores. In the second scene both have died: the rich man is buried; the poor man is carried by angels to Abraham's bosom. And the rich man is seen in hell, not for worshiping false gods, not for oppressing the poor, not for being rich, but for being indifferent to the claims of humanity.

In the other teaching all nations are pictured by Jesus as gathered before the judgment throne of the Messiah. The awards of life are pronounced. And it is not the pagans who have worshiped false gods, nor the heretics who have believed false doctrine, nor the schismatics who have separated themselves from the Church, nor merely the cruel and tyrannical who have oppressed their fellow-men, but those who have done nothing to relieve the stranger, and the naked, and the sick, and the imprisoned, who are condemned as accursed to everlasting fire prepared for the devil and his angels.

The Age of Humanity

The anathemas of the Church have been leveled against the unbelievers in Christianity; the anathemas of Jesus are leveled only against the practitioners of inhumanity. But in his teaching neglect is no less an inhumanity than oppression. I cannot doubt that Jesus would esteem the age of hospitals and orphanages, of insane asylums and reformatories, of kindergartens and social settlements, more Christian than the age of creeds and catechisms and of religious conformity enforced by religious persecution. But my imagination is not equal to conceiving the commingled scorn and indignation with which the author of the parables of the Rich Fool and of Dives and Lazarus would address those men in America, however little or however great their wealth, whose whole ambition is to acquire and possess and still to acquire and possess, who make wealth the standard of success and the dollar mark the measure of manhood, and who never employ either their wealth or their ability in a serious endeavor to grapple with the great problem of poverty which still confronts our modern civilization.

The folly of a life of mere money-making

And Jesus condemned acquisition for its own sake, not only because it wronged others, but also because it wronged the man who was making the acquisition. "What shall it profit a man," he said, "if he gain the whole world and lose his own life?" That does not mean, What shall it profit a man if he gets this world and loses another? There are a good many Americans to-day who think the other world is so uncertain that a world in the hand is worth two in the bush. That was not Jesus' question. His question is, What shall it profit a man if he loses himself and gets things? What profit to a man who can gather from all the world all the choice foods that can be found in the world's markets and spread them out upon his table, if in the process he has got dyspepsia and cannot eat them? What profit if he is able to buy pictures and hang them on his walls, and lacks either the taste or the time to look at them? What profit if he can store his house with royal books, and cares for no books but his ledger and his journal? A man does not own a book because he has it in his house; he owns it when he can put it in his head. He does not own a picture because it hangs on his walls; he owns it when it can delight his heart. A man of wealth not long since built a country house in the neighborhood of one of our great cities. No country house is complete without a library. No library is complete without books. But the shelves in this library when it was finished were too shallow to hold books. So what does he do but buy of a publisher shop-worn copies in fine bindings of classical English works, cut the books in two, leaving the backs

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intact, glue them into the shelves, lock the glass doors, lose the key, put a great lounge against the bookcase—and behold his library! "What shall it profit a man if he gain the world and lose his own life? Or what shall a man give in exchange for his life?"

Jesus did not condemn desire for power or all use of force

Jesus did not condemn the desire for power; on the contrary, he indicated approval of it, because he offered it as a reward. He said to his disciples, "Ye shall sit upon twelve thrones, judging the twelve tribes of Israel." That is power. In one of his parables he represented the lord in the story as saying to the loyal and efficient servant, "Thou hast been faithful over a few things, I will make thee ruler over many things." That is power. He approved the desire of men for power, for he appealed to it as to a worthy motive.

Nor did he condemn all use of force. He did not draw any line between physical and moral power, and condemn the one and approve the other. He began his ministry by an act which had all the effect of using physical power; he ended it by another of a similar character.

The Temple at Jerusalem was built in a series of courts, one within the other. The outermost of these courts was called the Court of the Gentiles, because no Gentile, under pain of death, could pass its portals into the court within. Graft is not a modern invention, nor are rings a modern creation; they existed in Palestine in the time of Jesus, and were not on so large a scale as in our time because Palestine was not so large as the United States. Worshipers coming up to Jerusalem had to exchange their foreign coin for the Hebrew coin in which alone the priest's charges could be paid, and had to purchase doves, sheep, and oxen for their sacrifices. A corrupt ring had been formed by the civil and ecclesiastical authorities of Jerusalem; the Court of the Gentiles had been converted into a market-place; there the money-changers plied their trade; there the doves were caged and the sheep and cattle were stalled; and the clink of the coin and the cooing of the doves and the bleating of the sheep and the lowing of the cattle mingled with the echoes of the Temple music stealing out through the open doors. The priest could always find a reason for rejecting the money or the sacrifice offered by the worshiper if it had not been obtained in this Temple market-place. In short, there was a trust; and the profits from the extra charges imposed by the monopoly were divided between the priests and the politicians. Jesus, coming up from his baptismal consecration to his ministry to Jerusalem, beheld this scene with indignation. He was as yet unfriended and unknown. It is doubtful whether he had any disciple with him, unless possibly John, to whose pen we are indebted for, I think, the most authentic narrative of this incident. Jesus stooped down, gathered from the Temple floor some of the rushes used to bed the cattle, wove them into a lash, and, advancing on the throng of frightened thieves, drove them without ceremony from their desecrating market-place. Take these things hence, he cried; ye have made out of the house of God a den of thieves. Afterward, when John, in a vision in the Isle of Patmos, saw a figure whose eyes were like a flame of fire, and his feet like fine brass, and his voice like the sound of many waters, and his words cut like a two-edged sword, he recognized the leader whom he had seen that day in the Temple, with a countenance like the countenance of an angel of God, very terrible.

The other act was at the end of Jesus' life. He had spent an evening in quiet conversation with his disciples. He had met with them about that ever-memorable supper-table, hinted to them of his approaching death, and endeavored to prepare them for the tragedy. Did he know just what form that tragedy would take? or how soon it would be consummated? We cannot tell, for we have only the reports of disciples who evidently did not know then, but who interpreted his prophetic words by the almost immediately following events. But he knew that Judas had gone out to betray his present resting-place to his enemies. He arose from the table and bade his disciples follow him to a garden outside the city walls. It was apparently a familiar resort to them and to him. He had said his last

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word to them, and, withdrawing first from the eleven, then from his three most intimate friends, asked them to watch while he retreated into the shadow of the trees for prayer. Could he have escaped? Whither? He had few friends in Judea, and none who could afford him any refuge against the conspiracy for his death. And to have fled to Galilee, even could he have done so, would have been a confession of weakness and defeat after his challenge to the corrupt priesthood under the roof of the Temple which they considered their peculiar domain. But he did not wish to be taken unawares; wished at least one hour of quiet, uninterrupted communion with his Father before the day of horror dawned on him and his disciples. So he asked—his last request—his three friends to watch for him. But they could not or would not realize that so great a crisis was near. They did not watch; they slept. It was not they, it was he who heard the tramp of the police as they marched with measured step across the valley to seek him in the garden which Judas knew so well. The echoes of their footfall brought his Father's answer to his prayer; the cup could not pass from him unless he drank it. And he went forward to put himself between the arresting party and his disciples, that he might save them by surrendering himself. Let John, an eye-witness of what followed, tell the story here. "Jesus therefore, knowing all things that should come upon him, went forth, and said unto them, Whom seek ye? They answered him, Jesus of Nazareth. Jesus saith unto them, I am he. And Judas also, which betrayed him, stood with them. As soon then as he had said unto them, I am he, they went backward, and fell to the ground. Then asked he them again, Whom seek ye? and they said, Jesus of Nazareth. Jesus answered, I have told you that I am he; if therefore ye seek me, let these go their way." The hint was not lost on the disciples, who made good their escape, while Jesus was bound and led away. It is idle to ask whether it was natural or supernatural power, physical or moral power, that made the guard fall back and give the disciples an opportunity to escape. Is hypnotism physical or moral, or the two combined? It is enough that, in the expulsion of the traders in the beginning of his ministry and in the momentary repulse of the arresting guard to save his disciples from arrest at the end of his ministry, Jesus produced all the effect of physical power. He did, whether by natural or supernatural power it is idle to inquire and perhaps impossible to judge, what, if he is an example, we have a right in similar circumstances to do by the exercise of such power as we possess, provided we are inspired by the same unselfish and chivalric spirit.

Nor did Jesus take the ground that has sometimes been taken in modern times, that physical force may be used in self-defense, but not otherwise. He never used it himself in self-defense: he rebuked Peter when Peter attempted to use it in his defense; and in one notable passage he apparently—again I say I would not lay too much stress on the seeming words of Jesus—he apparently condemned every kind of forcible resistance in self-defense. The passage is this:

> Whosoever shall smite thee on thy right cheek, turn to him the other also. And if any man will sue thee at the law, and take away thy coat, let him have thy cloak also. And whosoever shall compel thee to go a mile, go with him twain.

To smite you on the cheek is personal violence: do not resist that. To sue you at the law is to employ legal means of injustice: do not resist that. To compel you to go a mile is governmental injustice; do not resist that. This is what Jesus seems to say. He does not forbid all use of force. And he does not draw the line at self-defense. What then? Jesus himself seems to me to give the answer to this question: "But Jesus called them unto him, and said, Ye know that the princes of the Gentiles exercise dominion over them, and they that are great exercise authority upon them. But it shall not be so among you: but whosoever will be great among you, let him be your minister: and whosoever will be chief among you, let him be your servant." In effect Jesus said to his disciples: "I do not condemn the use of the world, but use it in service; I do not condemn the acquisition of wealth, but acquire it for service; I do not condemn the exercise of power, but exercise it for service."

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But service was not, in Christ's thought, to be indirect and incidental and occasional service, such as one man may furnish to his fellow-men as he goes through life. There was a unity to Christ's life. If we wish to know the unity of that life, we must ask what he taught as to our relation to God. What did he mean by godliness? That will be the subject of my next paper.

THE OCCUPATION AND EXERCISE CURE

BY FRANK MARSHALL WHITE

THE nerve specialist leaned back in his chair behind the great mahogany desk in his consulting-room and studied the features of the capitalist as that important factor in commerce and industry explained the symptoms that had become alarming enough to drive him, against his will, to seek medical assistance. The patient was under fifty years of age, though the deep lines in his face, with his whitening hair—consequences of the assiduity with which he had devoted himself to the accumulation of his millions and his position in the Directory of Directors—made him appear ten years older. An examination had shown that he had no organic disease of any kind, but he told the physician that he was suffering from what he called "inward trembling," with palpitation of the heart, poor sleep, occasional dizziness, pain in the back of the neck, difficulty in concentrating his attention, and, most of all, from various apprehensions, such as that of being about to fall, of losing his mind, of sudden death—he was afraid to be alone, and was continually tired, worried, and harassed.

"You present merely the ordinary signs of neurasthenia," said the specialist. "These symptoms are distressing, but not at all serious or dangerous. You have been thinking a great deal too much about yourself and your feelings. You watch with morbid interest the perverted sensations that arise in various parts of your body. You grow apprehensive about the palpitation of your heart, which is not at all diseased, but which flutters a little from time to time because the great nerve of the heart is tired, like the other great nerves and nerve-centers of your body. You grow apprehensive over the analogous tremor which you describe as 'inward trembling,' and which you often feel all through your trunk and sometimes in your knees, hands, and face, particularly about the eyes and mouth and in the fingers."

The capitalist had started at the mention of the word neurasthenia, and had seemed much relieved when the physician had declared that the symptoms were not dangerous. "I had been under the impression that neurasthenia was practically an incurable disease," he said. "However, you have described my sensations exactly."

"One hundred per centum of cases of neurasthenia are curable," responded the specialist. "Neurasthenia is not, as is usually supposed, an equally diffused general exhaustion of the nervous system. In my opinion, it is rather an unequally distributed multiple fatigue. Certain more vulnerable portions of the nervous system are affected, while the remainder is normal. In the brain we have an overworked area which, irritated, gives rise to an apprehension or imperative idea. By concentration of energy in some other region of the brain, by using the normal portions, we give this affected part an opportunity to rest and recuperate. New occupations are therefore substituted for the old habitual one. A change of interests gives the tired centers rest."

"I have heard the 'rest cure' advocated in cases like mine," suggested the capitalist.

"In the treatment of neurasthenia we must take the whole man into considera-

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tion," said the physician. "We must stimulate nutrition, feed well the tired and exhausted organism, and, above all, provide some sort of rest and distraction for the mind. The mind needs feeding as well as the body. The rest cure is a kind of passive, relaxing, sedative treatment. The field is allowed to lie fallow, and often to grow up with weeds, trusting to time to rest and enrich it. The 'exercise and occupation cure,' on the other hand, is an active, stimulating, and tonic prescription. You place yourself in the hands of a physician who must direct the treatment. He will lay out a scheme with a judicious admixture of exercise which will improve your general health, soothe your nervous system, induce good appetite and sleep, and of occupation which will keep your mind from morbid self-contemplation. One of the best means to this end is manual occupation —drawing, designing, carpentry, metal-work, leather-work, weaving, basket-making, bookbinding, clay-modeling, and the like—for in all these things the hands are kept busy, requiring concentration of attention, while new interests of an artistic and æsthetic nature are aroused. The outdoor exercise, taken for a part of each day, if of the right sort, also distracts by taking the attention and creating interest."

The capitalist had called upon the specialist braced for a possible sentence of death, prepared at the least to be informed that he was suffering from a progressive mental malady. Now, while a tremendous weight was lifted from his mind with the information that he might anticipate a complete return to health, the idea of devoting his trained intelligence, accustomed to cope with great problems of trade and finance, to such trivialities as basket-making or modeling in clay appeared preposterous. Nevertheless, when the physician told him of a resort near at hand, established for the treatment of cases just such as his, where he might be under continuous medical supervision, without confinement indoors or being deprived of any of the comforts or luxuries of life, he decided to put himself in the other's hands unreservedly. The specialist informed him that the length of time required for his cure would depend largely upon himself. He might, for instance, even keep in touch with his office and have matters of import referred to him while he was recuperating his mental and physical strength, but such a course would inevitably retard his recovery, and possibly prevent it. To get the best results from the treatment he ought to leave every business interest behind him, he was told.

The fee that the capitalist paid the specialist made his advice so valuable that the other followed it absolutely. The next evening saw the patient in the home of the "occupation and exercise cure." He arrived just in time to sit down to dinner with a score of other patients, not one of whom showed any outward sign of illness, though all were taking the cure for some form of nervous trouble. There were no cases of insanity among them, however, none being admitted to the institution under any circumstances. The dinner was simple and abundant, and the conversation at the tables of a lively and cheerful nature. As everybody went to bed by ten o'clock—almost every one considerably before that hour, in fact—the newcomer did likewise, he having secured a suite with a bath in the main building. Somewhat to the surprise of the capitalist, who was accustomed to be made much of wherever he happened to be, no more attention was paid to him than to any other guest of the establishment, a condition of affairs that happened to please him. He was told on retiring that breakfast would be served in the dining-room from 7:30 to 8:30 in the morning, but that, if he preferred to remain in his room, it would be brought to him there at nine o'clock.

The capitalist had a bad night, and was up to breakfast early. After he had concluded that repast the medical superintendent showed him about the place, but did not encourage him to talk about his symptoms. The grounds of the "occupation and exercise cure" comprised a farm of forty acres located among the hills of northern Westchester County in the Croton watershed, with large shade trees, lawns, flower gardens, and an inexhaustible supply of pure spring water from a well three hundred feet deep in solid rock. The main building, situated on a knoll adjacent to a grove of evergreen trees,

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contained a great solarium, which was the favorite sitting-room of the patients, and the dining-room was also finished with two sides of glass, both apartments capable of being thrown open in warm weather, and having the advantage of all the sun there was in winter. In this building were also the medical offices, with a clinical laboratory and hydro- and electro-therapeutic equipment, and accommodations for from twelve to fifteen guests. Two bungalows under the trees of the apple orchard close at hand, one containing two separate suites with baths, and the other two living-rooms with hall and bath-room, were ideal places for quiet and repose. Situated at the entrance to the grounds was a club-house, with a big sitting-room and an open fireplace; it also contained a solarium, billiard-room, bowling alleys, a squash court, a greenhouse for winter floriculture, and the arts and craft shops, with seven living-rooms. Every living-room in the main building, the club-house, and the bungalows was connected with the medical office by telephone, so that in case of need patients might immediately secure the services of a physician at any hour of the day or night.

The arts and crafts shops being the basic principle of the "occupation and exercise cure," the capitalist was introduced to an efficient and businesslike young woman, the instructress, who explained to him the nature of the avocations in which he might choose to interest himself. Here he found his fellow-patients busily and apparently congenially employed. In one of the shops a recent alumnus of one of the leading universities, who had undergone a nervous breakdown after graduation, was patiently hammering a sheet of brass with a view to converting it into a lampshade; a matron of nearly sixty, who had previously spent eight years in sanatoriums, practically bedridden, was setting type in the printing office with greater activity than she had known before for two decades; two girls, one sixteen and the other twelve, the latter inclined to hysteria and the former once subject to acute nervous attacks, taking the cure in charge of trained nurses, were chattering gayly over a loom in the construction of a silk rug; a prominent business man from a Western city, like the New York capitalist broken down from overwork, was earnestly modeling in clay what he hoped might eventually become a jardinière; one of last season's débutantes among the fashionables, who had been leading a life of too strenuous gayety that had told on her nerves, was constructing a stamped leather portfolio with entire absorption; and half a dozen others, mostly young women, were engaged at wood-carving, bookbinding, block-printing, tapestry weaving, or basket-making, each one of them under treatment for some nervous derangement.

The new patient decided to try his hand at basket-making; and, although he figured out that it would take him about four days to turn out a product that might sell for ten cents, he was soon so much interested in mastering the manual details of the craft that he was disinclined to put the work aside when the medical superintendent suggested a horseback ride. When, at the advice of the specialist, the capitalist had decided to try the occupation and exercise cure, he did so with little faith that it would restore him to health, though he felt that there was perhaps a slight chance that it might help him. The remedy seemed to him too simple to overcome a disease that was paralyzing his energies. To his great surprise, he began to improve at once; and though for the first week he got little sleep, and his dizziness, with the pain in the back of his neck and his apprehensions, continued to recur for weeks, they did so at always increasing intervals.

He learned bookbinding, and sent to his library for some favorite volumes, and put them into new dress; he made elaborate waste-paper baskets, and beat brass into ornamental desk-trays, which he proudly presented to his friends in the city as specimens of his skill. Work with him, as with the others of the patients, was continually varied by recreation. In the summer months there were lawn-tennis, golf, croquet, canoeing, rowing, fishing, riding, and driving. In winter, such outdoor sports as skating, tobogganing, coasting, skeeing, snowshoeing, and lacrosse were varied by billiards, bowling, squash, the medicine ball, and basket and tether ball. The capitalist was astonished to

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discover that he could take an interest in games. The specialist, who called upon his patient at intervals, told him that a point of great importance in the cure was that exercise that is *enjoyed* is almost twice as effective in the good accomplished as exercise which is a mere mechanical routine of movements made as a matter of duty.

The net result was that, after four months of the "occupation and exercise cure," the capitalist returned to New York sound in mind and body, and feeling younger than he had before in years. Complete cures were effected in the cases of the other patients also, which is the less remarkable when the circumstance is taken into consideration that only patients capable of entire recovery are recommended to take the treatment.

Of course the institution that has been described is only for the well-to-do, and physicians are endeavoring to bring the "occupation and exercise cure" within the reach of the poor, and to interest philanthropists in the establishment of "colony sanatoriums," such as already exist in different parts of Europe, for those suffering from functional nervous disorders who are without means. Contrary to the general opinion, neurasthenia, particularly among women, is not confined to the moneyed and leisure class; but, owing to the fact that women have taken up the work of men in offices and trades as well as in many of the professions, working-women are continually breaking down under nervous strain, and many, under present conditions, have little chance for recovery, because they cannot afford the proper treatment. As a speaker at the last annual meeting of the American Medical Association declared, "Idiots and epileptics and lunatics are many; but all together they are less numerous than the victims of nervousness—the people afflicted with lesser grades of psychasthenic and neurasthenic inadequacy, who become devoted epicures of their own emotions, and who claim a large share of the attention of every general practitioner and of every specialist."

Scientists declare that this premature collapse of nerve force is increasing to such an extent as to become a positive menace to the general welfare. The struggle for existence among the conditions of modern life, especially among those found in the large centers of industrial and scientific activity, and the steady, persistent work, with its attendant sorrows, deprivations, and over-anxiety for success, are among the most prolific causes—causes which are the results of conditions from which, for the large mass of people, according to a leading New York alienist, there has been no possibility of escape.

"Especially here in America are people forced into surroundings for which they have never been fitted," the alienist asserts, "and especially here are premature demands made upon their nervous systems before they are mature and properly qualified. The lack of proper training deprives many of the workers, in all branches, of the best protection against functional nervous diseases which any person can have, namely, a well-trained nervous system. This struggle for existence by the congenital neuropath or the educationally unfit forces many to the use, and then to the abuse, of stimulants and excitants, and herein we have another important exciting cause. This early and excessive use of coffee, tea, alcohol, and tobacco is especially deleterious in its action upon the nervous system of those very ones who are most prone to go to excess in their use.

"Therefore, predisposition, aided by the storm and stress of active competition and abetted by the use of stimulants, must be looked upon as the main cause for the premature collapse of nerve force which we call neurasthenia; so it will be found that the majority of neurasthenics are between twenty-five and fifty years of age, and that their occupations are those which are attended by worry, undue excitement, uncertainty, excessive wear and tear, and thus we find mentally active persons more easily affected than those whose occupation is solely physical. Authors, actors, school-teachers, governesses, telegraph and telephone operators, are among those most frequently affected, and the increase of neurasthenia among women dates from the modern era which has opened to them new channels of work and has admitted them more generally into the so-called learned professions. But whatever may be the occupation in which persons have

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broken down, it is never the occupation alone which has been the cause.

"This cannot be too often repeated. The emotional fitness or unfitness of an individual for his occupation is of the utmost importance as a causative factor, and overwork alone, without any emotional cause and without any errors in mode of life, will never act to produce such a collapse. It is therefore not astonishing that this class of functional nervous diseases is not confined to the wealthy, and that the rich and the poor are indiscriminately affected. But certain causes are of greater influence in the one class, while different ones obtain in the other. Poverty in itself, with its limitations of proper rest and recuperation, is a very positive cause. Years of neurological dispensary work among the poor have convinced me that nervousness, neurasthenia, hysteria, etc., are quite as prevalent among the indigent as among the well-to-do."

Physicians agree that the prime requisite in the treatment of these disorders is the removal of the patient from his or her habitual surroundings, where recognition of the existence of actual disease is generally wanting, where the constant admonitions of well-meaning friends to "brace up" and to "exert your will power" force the sick man or woman to bodily and mental over-exertion, and where the worries about a livelihood are always dominant. Such a change alone, however, the experts say, will help but few, for it is being recognized more and more that these functional diseases of the nervous system can receive satisfactory treatment only in institutions, where constant attention may be had, with expert supervision and trained attendants.

The "occupation and exercise cure" is applicable also to epilepsy, and is the therapeutic principle of the Craig Colony for Epileptics at Sonyea, in Livingston County, supported by the State, and that institution furnishes a general model for the "colony sanatoriums" suggested for indigent patients suffering from functional nervous disorders. The Craig Colony was the idea of Dr. Frederick Peterson, Professor of Psychiatry at Columbia University, and former President of the New York State Commission of Lunacy and of the New York Neurological Society, which he based upon the epileptic colony at Beilefeld, Germany, that was founded in 1867. The Craig Colony was founded in 1894, and there are now being cared for within its confines more than thirteen hundred patients, who have turned out this year agricultural products, with bricks, soap, and brooms, to the value of $60,000. The colony is named after the late Oscar Craig, of Rochester, who, with William P. Letchworth, of Buffalo, purchased the two-thousand-acre tract of land on which it is situated from the Shaker colony at Sonyea and presented it to the State, Dr. Peterson devoting several months of each year for nine years to getting the institution into working order. The first patients were housed in the old Shaker buildings, which were well constructed and fairly well arranged for the purpose, but as additional applications for admission have been made new buildings have been erected. To-day there are eighty buildings in the colony, but a thousand patients are waiting for admission, eight hundred of whom are in New York City.

Epilepsy, the "falling sickness," is a most difficult malady to treat even in an institution for that purpose, and it is impossible to treat it anywhere else. An epileptic in a family is an almost intolerable burden to its other members, as well as to himself. The temperamental effect of the disease takes the form in the patient of making frequent and unjust complaints, and epileptics invariably charge some one with having injured them while they have been unconscious during an attack. Then, too, living at home, they are often dangerous to younger members of a family, and they are fault-finding, exacting, and irritable generally. The seizures frequently come on without warning, and the patient drops where he stands, often injuring himself severely. The last annual report of the Craig Colony records more than four hundred injuries within the year to patients during seizures which required a surgeon's attention, the injuries varying from severe bruises to fractures of the skull.

The object of the Craig Colony is to remove the burden of the epileptic in the family from the home without subjecting the patient to the hardship of confinement with the insane. "Very few epileptics suffer permanent insanity in any

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form except dementia," says the medical superintendent of the Colony. "Acute mania and maniac depressive insanity not infrequently appear as a 'post-convulsive' condition, that generally subsides within a few hours, or at most a few days. Rarely the state may persist a month. Melancholia is extremely infrequent. Delusions of persecution, hallucinations of sight or hearing, systematized in character, are almost never encountered in epilepsy."

Only from six to fifteen per cent of epileptics are curable, and hence the work of the Craig Colony is largely palliative of the sufferings of the patients. Each individual case is studied with the utmost care, however, and patients are given their choice of available occupations. The Colony is not a custodial institution. There are no bars on the windows, no walls or high fences about the farm. The patients are housed in cottages, men and women in separate buildings some distance apart, about thirty to each cottage. In charge of each of these families are a man and his wife, who utilize the services of some of the patients in the performance of household work, while the others have their duties outside. Kindness to the unfortunates under their care is impressed upon every employee of the Colony, and an iron-bound rule forbids them to strike a patient even in case of assault.

Besides the agricultural work in the Craig Colony, and that in the soap and broom factories and the brick-yard, the patients are taught blacksmithing, carpentry, dressmaking, tailoring, painting, plumbing, shoemaking, laundrying, and sloyd work. It is insisted on that all patients physically capable shall find employment as a therapeutic measure. The records show that on Sundays and holidays and on rainy days, when there is a minimum of physical activity among the patients, their seizures double and sometimes treble in number. Few of the patients know how to perform any kind of labor when they enter the Colony, but many of them learn rapidly. It has been repeatedly demonstrated that boys from eighteen to twenty years of age can spend two years in the sloyd shop and leave it fully qualified as cabinet-makers, and capable of earning a journeyman's wages.

There are about two hundred children in the colony of epileptics at Sonyea, more than half of whom are girls. As children subject to epileptic seizures are not received in the public schools of the State, the only opportunity for any education among these afflicted little ones whose parents are unable to teach them themselves or provide private tutors for them is in the schools of the Colony. Some of the children are comparatively bright scholars, while the attempt to teach others seems a hopeless task. For instance, it took one girl ninety days to learn to lay three sticks in the form of a letter A.

Every effort is made to encourage recreation among the patients in the Craig Colony, both children and adults. The men have a club of 250 members, with billiards, chess, checkers, cards, and magazines and newspapers. The boys have their baseball and football, and play match games among themselves or with visiting teams. The women and girls play croquet, tennis, and other outdoor games. There is a band composed of patients that gives a concert once a week, and there are theatricals and dancing, with occasional lectures by visiting celebrities. As the Colony, with the medical staff, nurses, and other employees, has a population of 2,000, there is always an audience for any visiting attraction. The maintenance of the Colony is costing the State $225,000 the present year.

Since the founding of the Craig Colony similar institutions have been established in Massachusetts, Texas, Michigan, Ohio, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Kansas, and other States are preparing to follow their example. There are other private sanatoriums throughout the country similar to the one in Westchester County, where the nervous or neurasthenic patient who is well-to-do may obtain relaxation and supervision, but there is no place at all to-day where the man or woman suffering from curable nervous disorders who is without means can go for treatment.

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THE NEW BOOKS

A cheerful, non-decadent tale of artists and writers in New York is Juliet Wilbor Tompkins's "The Top of the Morning." These are honest, friendly people who have a well-developed sense of fun. The plot is negligible, but the characters are capital and the incidents original and amusing. (Baker & Taylor Company, New York. $1.50.) Katherine Tynan in "Peggy the Daughter" relates an old-fashioned, pretty story of Irish life in the days when a rich gentleman with gambling debts could carry off by force a rich Quaker's daughter, marry her before a half-witted priest, and hope to adjust all difficulties. In this case the affair turns out to be a serious one, and Peggy, the Quaker wife, waits many years for her husband to come out of jail, meanwhile making his little daughter her care. (Cassell & Co., New York. $1.50.) More modern and more vigorous is "Thurston of Orchard Valley," by Harold Bindloss, a romance of engineering in the Northwest. Mr. Bindloss knows his subject and has here some forceful situations and sound study of character, but his book would be bettered if it were written in a crisper style. (F. A. Stokes Company, New York. $1.50.) Vincent Brown's "The Screen" is rather remarkable as a study of English Churchmen in a cathedral city, with the new bishop in a sense the villain of the plot, in that he has a guilty memory known only to one influential layman, with whom he also becomes unpleasantly situated because of the attempt to remove from a church the "screen" which gives title to the book. Out of rather unpromising material Mr. Brown has built a story which takes strong hold on the attention. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $1.25.)

Mr. Begbie, author of that remarkable novel "The Vigil," has chosen for the title of the wonderful biographies in his book "Twice-Born Men," a phrase of Professor William James, to whose volume "The Varieties of Religious Experience" he terms these narratives "a foot-note." Their subjects he found in a few shabby streets of London. He relates "the struggle of overmastered and defeated souls for liberty, for life, for escape from hell." Miracles that are the despair of science are here evinced as the achievement of religion, transforming bestial squalor and brutality into human refinement and gentleness. Beyond whatever explanation of this moral miracle science may produce from psychology is what Mr. Begbie regards as the less explicable wonder-work of religion, to inspire the pure and holy with love for the degraded and base. Professor James says of this book that "it is a wonderful set of stories splendidly worked up. . . . I might as well call my book a foot-note to his." (Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. $1.25.)

Among recent volumes of poems, Mrs. Florence Earle Coates's "Lyrics of Life" (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, $1.25) will satisfy those readers who care especially for verse charged with deep feeling, and in which the tragedy of things, while not evaded, is lightened by faith, hope, and love. The personal note is always sounded in Mrs. Coates's verse, but not in an egotistical sense; for what she writes is not in the way of academic exercise, but in response to the inward pressure of her spirit. She has a nice sense of form and the instinct of an artist, and she has served her apprenticeship, so that the touch of the amateur has vanished from her lines, which are often happily suggestive of the trained woman as well as the woman of deep feeling. She has put her own creed into three stanzas:

THE POET

Is he alone? The myriad stars shine o'er him,
The flowers bloom for him mid wintry frost:
He needs not sleep to dream—and dreams restore him
Whatever he has lost.

Is he forsaken? Beauty's self is nigh him,
Closer than bride to the fond lover's arms—
Veiled, guarding still, to lift and glorify him,
The *mystery* of her charms.

Unto his soul she speaks in accents moving—
In moving accents meant for him alone,
Revealing, past all visioned heights of loving,
Far-beckoning heights unknown.

"Landscape Painting," the title of Mr. Birge Harrison's book (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, $1.50) makes one think first of Constable, Crowe, and Bonington, for they depicted "the first true impressions of outdoor nature ever placed upon canvas." It makes one think also of Corot and Rousseau, greater painters, but working on the lines marked out by the three Englishmen. It makes us think of Monet, Pissaro, and Sisley, the later impressionists and revealers of the vibration of light. The inquiring student or layman wants to know more about that vibration and about refraction, values, color, drawing, composition, quality, pigments—the painter's stock in trade, so to speak. Mr. Harrison instructs us in pleasantly unprofessional language. We may not be quite convinced by his arguments concerning color, for instance, but we can hardly fail to recognize his point of view as to "impressionism." For example: "Art has nothing to do with things as they are, but only with things as they appear to be, with the visual, not the actual, with impressions, not with realities. . . . Any one who honestly and sincerely records his impressions *is* in the truest sense an impressionist. . . . The so-called French impressionists were far more accurately termed luminarists, or painters of light. . . . Their special triumph in art was purely a technical triumph—the discovery that by the use of broken color in its prismatic simplicity the pulsating, vibrating effect of light could be transferred to the surface of a canvas. But they were

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neither the fathers of impressionism nor were they especially distinguished in this line. As a matter of fact, they were somewhat deficient in the quality of personal vision, and their rage to secure the effect of light at all hazards led to a certain monotony of technique which tended to blunt the personal note in their work."

We are sorry that landscapists are not more to the fore in Elizabeth Luther Cary's "Artists Past and Present" (Moffat, Yard & Co., New York, $2.50). By her sympathetic and discriminating appreciations of Blake and Whistler Miss Cary has shown herself an art critic of distinction. She now offers shorter appreciations, among others of Crivelli, Callot, Rembrandt, Jan Steen, Fantin-Latour, Alfred Stevens, Max Klinger, and Mary Cassatt, truly a company of "artists past and present." The book is extremely suggestive. Its unconventional range, covering so wide a variety of epochs, techniques, and manners, gives to its view-point an interesting penetration.

Another "past and present" book is Mr. James L. Caw's sumptuous "Scottish Painting, Past and Present" (F. A. Stokes Company, New York, $8). Mr. Caw is the Director of the National Galleries of Scotland. His "Past," it is true, does not reach as far back as does Miss Cary's—she includes Carlo Crivelli, who died in 1493. Mr. Caw does not begin until 1620, and then is occupied with comparatively unknown painters until Raeburn's time. That great portrait painter died in 1823, and, beginning forty years before, had inaugurated triumphant days for the Scottish school. But after Raeburn's name, what will you? Wilkie, Scott, Dyce, Philip, and now Orchardson, Pettie, Chalmers, McTaggart, all respectable names, some of them attractive names, none of them thrilling or inspiring. Well written as is Mr. Caw's volume, one turns from it almost with impatience to the consideration of a very much greater school of painting—that of the Low Countries, Belgium and Holland. First there is "The Art of the Belgian Galleries" (L. C. Page & Co., Boston, $2), by Esther Singleton, with its concise description of Flemish and Dutch painting. Down to the time of Rubens the Flemish and Dutch schools were closely allied. It is often difficult to distinguish between them. The volume describes the pictures in Bruges, Antwerp, Ghent, Brussels, Ypres, and Mechlin. A marked feature of the galleries of these cities is the vast preponderance of works by native artists. Only a comparatively few foreign paintings there are worth notice. The present volume is not of vital import to the student of art. But it is helpful to the traveler and observer. It includes short biographies of the principal painters and descriptive matter relative to the individual art qualities of these masters, their place in the history of art, and their influence on others.

As to Holland, we may look to Mr. Charles H. Caffin for "The Story of Dutch Painting" (The Century Company, New York, $1.20). Apparently he concedes to the Flemish school a surprising priority. At all events, he distinguishes nothing distinctly Dutch prior to Jan van Scovel, who died in 1562. Scovel was certainly Dutch enough. Then follow, of course, descriptions of what was done by Hals, Rembrandt (one turns again to Miss Cary's book), Terborch, Vermeer, Steen, Goyen, Hobbema, Ruysdael, and others—the result being a new school of painting in portraiture, landscape, and in the representation of the outdoor and indoor life of the people. Readable and instructive as is this book, it is not a complete guide. It would have been better entitled "The Story of Seventeenth-Century Dutch Painting," since that is the epoch chiefly covered. We search long for some reference to the modern very virile and influential Dutch school. We find only one: "The example of Rembrandt's chiaroscuro, wedded to that of Hals's facile craftsmanship, developed the inimitable perfection of technique which characterizes the best works of Holland. . . . The result of this influence has been to make modern Dutch painters, as a group, the best brushmen of their age." To understand modern Dutch painters, as individuals and as a school, one must seek another authority.

Fortunately, there is ready to hand the just-published volume by C. Hermine Marius. It treats of Dutch painting in the nineteenth century. It treats of Dutch painting only, as its title-page indicates, and not of other departments, as might be conveyed by its cover-title, "Dutch Art in the Nineteenth Century" (J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, $3.75). The volume is noteworthy. More clearly, we think, than does any other appreciation, it differentiates modern Dutch artists into history painters, romanticists, landscapists, and *genre* painters. "The Hague School" is brought out in clear relief—its early exponents, the masters of the "cabinet picture," and the later artists. Finally, there is a chapter on "The Reaction of the Younger Painters of Amsterdam," and a possibly over-emphatic one on "The New Formula." It seems to be a comprehensive formula. As examples, take the pictures of Jan Toorop. So eminent a critic as Dr. Muther has called him the Giotto of his day. Now Giotto transferred the art of painting from the depiction of Byzantine hierarchical forms to that of the living being. But, in contrast with the great age of faith when Giotto painted, Toorop, in depicting nature and making his human beings the exponents of his ideas, expresses "the skepticism of our time, the decline of established religious belief, the search after new dogmas." The lamented Vincent van Gogh's work also belongs to "the New Formula," says the author. It "represents not so much a creed as a man-to-man struggle." Like the chief object of every great artist, Gogh's was "to render life." He wanted "to express what he saw rather than to produce a harmonious painting; he strove to fling his im-

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pressions, as it were, upon his canvas in one breath." In technique "his color is not the result of a well-thought-out scheme, but is an effort rather to grasp the light, to hold it fast, to suggest color in light without the use of brown or bitumen."

"The Ethics of Jesus," by President King, of Oberlin College (The Macmillan Company, New York, $1.50), and "Modern Christianity," by Dr. John P. Peters, of New York City (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, $1.50), deal with the same general theme and are animated by the same general spirit, but pursue very different methods. Dr. King's book is written by a scholar for scholars. It is analytical, and is based avowedly on the work of modern scholars who are attempting to discover the original sources for the four Gospels, as the New Criticism has attempted to discover the sources for the Old Testament history. In our judgment, this analytical process has not yet reached results which can be affirmed with sufficient assurance to be given as final results to the unlearned lay reader. The first part of Dr. King's book is based on these analytical studies, and undertakes to interpret the ethical teachings of Jesus as those teachings are embodied in the "foundation pillars" recognized by Dr. Schmiedel, and in the "doubly attested sayings" recognized by Dr. Burkitt as almost certainly original sayings of Jesus. The most valuable part of his book is, to our thinking, Dr. King's analysis and interpretation of the Sermon on the Mount as a whole, though we think that in this analysis he fails to bring out with sufficient clearness the truth embodied in the last section of the sermon (Matthew vii. 7–27), that the inward life, on which Jesus lays such stress, is the gift of God; a truth which forms, in our judgment, a connecting link between the Gospel of Matthew and the Gospel of John. It is the chief value of this book that the lay reader will find stated in it with great clearness and simplicity the conclusions reached by some of the more radical analytical scholars, coupled with an essentially spiritual interpretation of the significance of these results. Dr. Peters's book is a series of sermons well worth the study of young ministers as models both in form and in substance. The most valuable part of this volume, in our judgment, is the second part, "The Social Teaching of Jesus Christ," the spirit of which we can best give by a few sentences taken almost at haphazard: "The person who enters into social relations, who seeks acquaintance and friendship, who gives and takes invitations, for no other purpose than social promotion is precisely to that extent a hypocrite and an unbeliever;" "The conditions which prevail among us could not prevail if even the majority of the well-to-do men and women in our churches realized their obligation not to throw their crumbs to the beggar at their gate, but to lift him up, to heal his sores, to take him into their homes, to make him one of themselves;" "There is a great work we have to do for these people [the negroes]. But has it ever occurred to you to turn it about the other way? God has given these people to us to teach *us* service, to teach *us* humility, to teach *us* brotherly love, to bring *us* back to the foundation principles of the Gospel. And the solution of the negro problem is more important, not for its effect on them, but for its effect on us."

LETTERS TO THE OUTLOOK

EDUCATIONAL WORK IN THE MOUNTAINS OF NORTH CAROLINA

The isolation in commerce, in education, and in religion of the Highlanders of the Southern Appalachian Mountains is scarcely known or appreciated by the people who have been in the whirl of the educational and commercial life of the last two generations. Those who long for the combination of the sturdy manhood and virtue and simplicity of the first half of the nineteenth century with the advantages attendant upon the wealth and enlightenment of to-day might be satisfied with the resultant combination, if the same amount of help proportionately were given these sturdy Highlanders that is given the well-to-do in the colleges and universities of the United States. These people are living the life of nearly a hundred years ago. Many of them have never ridden on or seen a railway train. Nearly a quarter of a million people in the mountains of North Carolina alone are to-day without religious affiliations of any kind, untouched and uncared for by any religious denomination; fifty thousand children in these same mountains do not attend any school, and a hundred thousand have school advantages only four months in the year. Many families of from six to eight persons live on a single wage of $20 to $30 a month.

These people are the descendants of the best Anglo-Saxon stock that came to this country in the early days. They have wonderful capacity, and with opportunity develop rapidly. When Abraham Lincoln said that "all that he was or hoped to be, he felt was due his dear mother," he was referring, not to his foster-mother, but to the mother who bore him, for he knew, and every student of heredity knows, that the making of such a man as Abraham Lincoln begins, not eight or ten years after, but ten or more years before his birth. And by this reckoning, the making of this great man of the last century should be credited to the mountains of North Carolina, and not to Kentucky or Indiana. There

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are Highland girls living in these mountains to-day as Abraham Lincoln's mother lived a century ago.

Industrial education is what is needed now. The same amount of money that is given each year to a score or more of institutions in the North would establish permanently a series of primary industrial schools that would care for ten times the number of pupils that are provided for by the same money given to the institutions of higher learning.

A single illustration will indicate what changes might be made. About four-fifths of the cultivated land in the mountains is put in Indian corn. Corn is not suited to the mountain section, and is not a profitable crop except in a few places where the old-time moonshiner converts it unlawfully into something else. This is, however, the finest apple-growing section in the United States, and the same amount of labor would produce from ten to twenty times as much in apple-growing as in corn-growing in that section. The industrial schools would teach the people what to grow, and how to grow apples profitably.

Another potent asset that should appeal to the lovers of America and American institutions is that these Southern Appalachian Mountains are giving to the Nation every year a hundred thousand new citizens of the purest American type, which is no inconsiderable item when we know that fifty per cent of the increase in many of our large cities is made up of a low type of immigrants from the slums of Europe.

These mountains came to the rescue when the tide was turning the other way in the War of the Revolution at the battle of King's Mountain. These mountains gave to the Nation her leader and many brave followers in the critical strife of the sixties, and the Nation may need the same kind of help when overrun with a mob of strikers born in other lands.

(Rt. Rev.) JUNIUS M. HORNER.

Asheville, North Carolina.

[Bishop Horner, in the above letter, indicates a great opportunity as well as a great need. The remedy is in the direction of the kind of work which it is proposed to have done by the Industrial School at Valle Crucis in North Carolina. Here the plan is as follows: The farmers of the county are to furnish the land and labor to care for the orchard for a period of eight years; and the school is to furnish the necessary capital. Each acre of land will require $100 to buy trees, plant them, furnish spraying equipment, materials, and fertilizers for eight years. Each acre will be capitalized at $200, of which the school owns one-half and the farmers one-half. In this plan the farmers will be enlisted, each one furnishing ten acres or more of suitable land, and the labor required to take care of the land; and the school will furnish the capital that is needed in addition to the land and labor. It is estimated that the income would be for three years $280 per acre. Thus educational work would be provided for the school, and the farmers would benefit. A fuller presentation of the plan would doubtless be furnished to any one interested by Bishop Horner.—THE EDITORS.]

MR. FOWLER'S SCHOOL COMMITTEE PLAN

I think that Mr. Nathaniel Fowler's plan, as recently propounded in The Outlook, for a new school committee, made up of half elected citizens and half school-teachers, would never work. The school management, in New England at least, is quite rapidly working toward this distinct division of duties: The school committee looks after the business of the schools, the superintendent selects and manages the teachers, and the teachers teach. In our own town the committee never interferes with the management of the schools or the teachers, in what may be called a pedagogical sense, except through the superintendent, and it never employs, promotes, or retires a teacher except with his concurrence, and usually at his request. The committee employs the superintendent. The superintendent virtually employs the teachers. How would it work to have on the school committee teachers who are employed by the superintendent and who would have power to vote for the discharge of the superintendent? How would it work to have on the committee teachers whom the superintendent wished to dismiss and knew should be dismissed? How would it work to have teachers on the committee who would have the right and the power to propose salary increases for themselves, lobby with the other members of the committee for the increase, and finally vote to raise their own salaries? Teachers are not usually broad enough on their practical side for the work of the school committees. They do not usually see very far into the educational problems of the day beyond the confines of their grade. Some of them do. The progressive among the teachers are more in line for superintendencies. The ideal superintendent is also quite unfitted for the work of the school committee. The three divisions—teaching, superintendency, and committee work—are very distinct. And my experience with the schools of New England, extending over some twenty-five years, has shown me that school committees are very efficient and zealous workers. They are not usually politicians, they get no pay (generally), they give much time, and they do know their business, Mr. Fowler to the contrary notwithstanding. The proposition to put teachers on school committees would lead only to anarchy. The schools have enough to contend with now. Give the committees credit for good intentions, zealous service, intelligence, progressiveness, and do not hamper them with such a scheme as this of putting teachers on their boards.

GEORGE FRENCH.

Hyde Park, Massachusetts.

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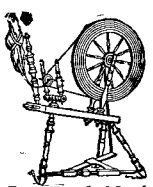

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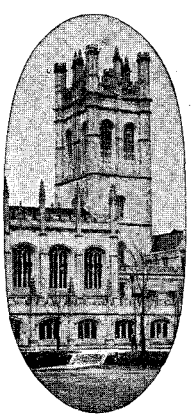

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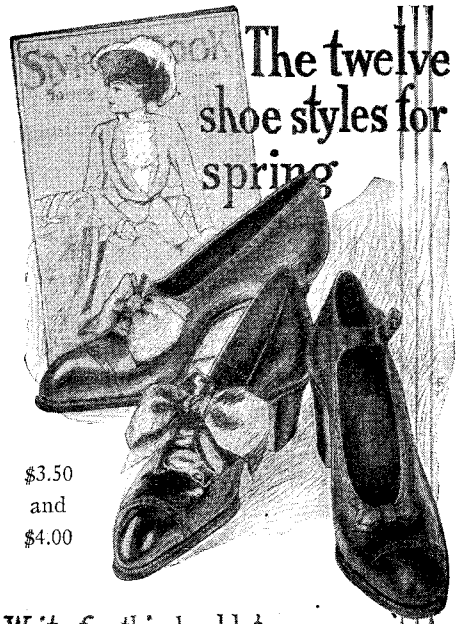

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